OUTLINES OF BRITISH SOCIAL HISTORY

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BY

E. H. DANCE, M A.

WOLVERHAMPTON GRAMMAR SCHOOL

NEW EDITION

PREFACE

THESE Outlines are intended mainly for readers on the threshold of their teens, and I have tried to keep them within limits which such pupils can cover in a year. Even in so little space, however, interest has to be maintained and thought stimulated, and I have therefore been as liberal as possible of actual examples which illustrate the course of Social development, and the exercises have been devised, not so much to test the pupil's knowledge, as to afford some training in its use. Only a small proportion of them can be written out in a year, but the rest may serve as a basis of oral work, and they have therefore been made fairly comprehensive

The thirty-two original extracts, upon which the Source Exercises are based, have been chosen not only for their suitability in class-work, but also for their intrinsic interest as illustrations of Social movements. I hope that in schools where a separate Source-Book is not available these extracts may be found to be an efficient substitute

Since a year's work in Social History is usually merely a parenthesis in a continuous course of Political History, I have purposely emphasised, as far as space would permit, the connection between Social and Political movements. With the same purpose of discouraging in young pupils the tendency to separate

History into water-tight compartments, I have included in the two Time Charts a fair number of dates from European History.

All the illustrations have been taken from trust-worthy sources, and I wish to thank those whose kindness has enabled me to reproduce them—especially the Staff of the Print Room at the British Museum, for their ungrudging guidance through the wealth of material in their charge, Mr Norman Ault, for permission to reprint some of his own drawings from his delightful little book, "Life in Ancient Britain"; and Mr G. M Trevelyan, from whose "History of England" has been taken the excellent map of a Medieval Village on page 51. I am also greatly indebted to Mrs P. Styles, for information about medieval Birmingham, and to my wife, whose suggestions in matters of detail, and assistance in correcting the proof-sheets, have been invaluable

In the incendiary raid on London at the end of 1940 this book was one of the many major casualties, and the opportunity has been taken to revise it thoroughly Several passages have been rewritten in the light of developments since the book was originally written, three maps have been added, and a number of smaller modifications have been made. The last chapter has been recast and continued to the immediate consequences of the war of 1939-45. In the remainder of the book care has been taken not to alter the paging, so that the new edition can be used with the old in classes whose pupils possess both

<div align="right">E H. D.</div>

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SOCIAL HISTORY

CHAPTER I

BEFORE HISTORY

History means the Story of Mankind
have a story we must have somebo
no one can tell this story excep'
History is the Story of Mankind,
have either spoken or written about th

Prehistoric Times.—Nobody knows ho
have been men on the earth   We do kno
that the first men, and those who came
for a very long time could neither speak
all   They were little better than anim
their food and eating it on the spot, chatt,
another like monkeys, fighting, and even
another   These earliest men could leave us no Etc.
—no written account of themselves and of what u
did   So the times when they lived are called *Pre-historic* times (or times *before History*) , and since we
cannot learn about them from writings, we have to do
so in other ways
The chief way in which we learn about prehistoric
times is by digging for the remains of these prehistoric
men   Some of them died perhaps 500,000 years ago,
or more, and their remains are buried deep in the

I

earth. Some of them died only 5,000 years ago or
less, and the remains of these men are near the surface
The remains of the last prehistoric men are so different
from the remains of the first, that we can tell from them
how much civilisation had progressed before we have
any proper history—that is, the history which is
written down

The **Old Stone Age.**—The very first men of all are
Eolithic, from a Greek word meaning "early
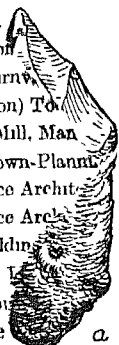
PALÆOLITHIC TOOLS
(from Ault's "Life in Ancient Britain.")

We know hardly anything about these
..., or Early Stone Age, men , and we do not
...ow very much more about the *Palæolithic* (or Old
Stone Age) men who came after them   There is very
little left of them, except a few skeletons and some
of the weapons they used   These weapons were all
of stone, chipped in a very rough way by knocking
them against other stones until they were pointed
or edged sharply enough to be used as clubs or daggers
or knives   We can only guess how the first Old Stone
Age men lived. They used their stone weapons for

hunting, and so they were different from all the other animals, which do not use manufactured weapons at all Probably they lived in caves, or even in trees, and they must have been far more savage than the most savage races of to-day.
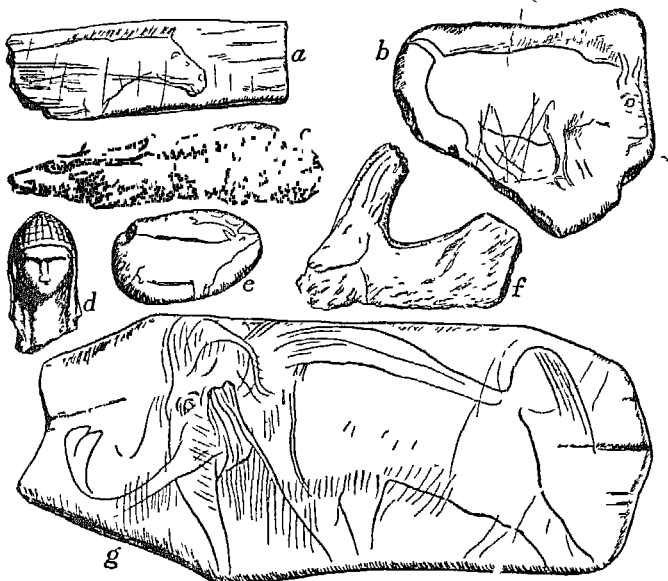
PALÆOLITHIC DRAWINGS ENGRAVED ON BONE, ETC.
(*From Ault's "Life in Ancient Britain"*)

The Old Stone Age lasted hundreds of thousands of years, and during all that time Palæolithic man was becoming less like the animals and more like ourselves His weapons remained rough, but he began to try to make his surroundings more beautiful He began wearing clothes, which he made from the skins of animals, sewing them together with bone needles

threaded with sinews. He even began to build huts
and to scratch pictures on the sides of the caves in
which he lived. Some of these pictures can still be
seen, and they show that many of the Palæolithic men
were quite skilful artists in their rough way.

The New Stone Age.—From this time men began to
progress rapidly in civilisation. They made their stone
weapons and tools much more skilfully, polishing them
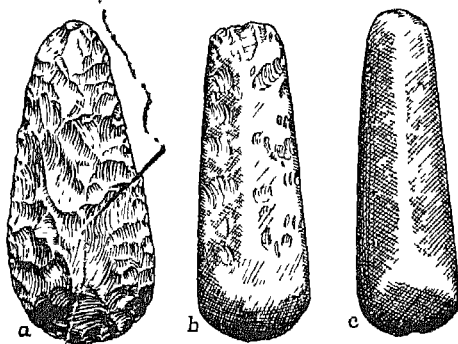
NEOLITHIC TOOLS
(*From Ault's "Life in Ancient Britain."*)

up to make them look better. They built their huts
together in villages, instead of living alone with no
companions but their wives and children. They
trained dogs to help them in hunting, and horses to
carry them about, and learned how to keep sheep
and cows and goats for milk. They made rough
ploughs for tilling the ground—and this shows that
they now ate other foods besides the meat which
they caught in hunting. They dug mines from which
to obtain flint for their tools, and even began a sort
of trade by exchanging tools with men of other villages
Their clothes were now really made of "cloth," which

they wove for themselves. In fact, they were vastly different from the men of the Old Stone Age—except that they still had only stone and bone tools. This more civilised period is called the *Neolithic* ("New Stone") Age.

The Bronze Age.—Then came a greater change still—the discovery of metal, which made weapons so much better than the old ones of stone that before very long the Stone Age passed away completely At first the commonest metal was bronze, and the time of bronze weapons is known as the *Bronze Age,* which lasted, as nearly as we can guess, from about 4,000 years till about 500 years before the birth of Christ

In these 3,500 years there was time for great changes, so that the last men of the Bronze Age were much more civilised than the first But besides this, men were much more civilised in one country than in another, just as they are now The inhabitants of this country were still quite savage at a time (about 2,000 years before Christ) when the people of Crete were very civilised indeed In the ruins of cities of the Bronze Age (especially *Cnossus* in Crete, and *Mycenæ* and *Tiryns* in Greece) explorers have discovered huge palaces with over a hundred rooms, besides well-built streets and houses, which show that in the Bronze Age the people around the Mediterranean Sea were more civilised even than some parts of Europe to-day

Trade in the Bronze Age.—In this country, however, the people were far less advanced Most of them still lived in caves, or in villages of stone huts, and were not much different from the men of the Stone Age, except that their tools were made of metal But the tribes in the south-west had one great advantage over

the others. Bronze cannot be made without tin, and some of the best tin mines in Europe were in the south-west of this country Consequently, traders came from all parts to obtain this tin in exchange for goods from their own lands   And through constantly meeting foreign traders (some of whom were *Cretans* and *Greeks*, and *Phœnicians* from the famous ports of

STONEHENGE (FROM A PHOTOGRAPH)
(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England "*)

Tyre and *Sidon* in Palestine), the men of this country became less rough and more like their civilised customers

The greatest Bronze Age building left in England is *Stonehenge*, on Salisbury Plain , and nobody knows whether it was a temple or a cemetery   But it is built so skilfully, of such mighty stones (some of which are raised 20 feet from the ground), that we cannot help admiring the Bronze Age men who erected it.

Goidels and Brythons.—Not long before the end of the Bronze Age this country was invaded by a tribe called the *Goidels* For several hundred years the Goidels lived here undisturbed, looking after their flocks Then, about 400 years before Christ, a new tribe, called the *Brythons*, came and drove the Goidels into the mountainous districts of the north There the Goidels settled, and their flocks obtained plenty of suitable food from the mountain pastures The Brythons stayed in the south, where the land was less rocky and more fertile—for the Brythons were fonder of cultivating the ground than of rearing sheep, like the Goidels These Brythons were the people who are more commonly known as the *Britons* , and the Goidels (or *Gaels*) were the ancestors of the Scottish Highlanders, many of whom still speak the *Gaelic* language.

The Iron Age and the Britons.—By the time of the Brython invasion, iron had been discovered. Bronze tools and weapons gradually went out of fashion, and the *Iron Age* began From the remains of the men of this age we can learn how the ancient Britons lived Their villages were built in all kinds of queer places for safety—on hillsides, where they were often surrounded by a ditch and a mound for keeping out enemies , around caves, which could be kept fairly warm in winter , and even (as at *Glastonbury* in Somerset) in the middle of shallow lakes, sometimes with a hidden pathway under the water, which an enemy could hardly find. The Britons lived in huts which were made of a kind of basketwork, fastened to upright poles, and covered with mud and straw They were nearly all farmers, tilling the ground and keeping horses, cows, sheep, goats, and pigs They made their own clothes of cloth which they wove on their own looms The usual dress for men was a coat and trousers, fastened around the leg with a sort of puttee or long garter.

The women wore skirts, and both men and women were fond of bright colours, especially red, and patterns like a modern Scottish plaid There was a good deal of trade with foreign countries The people of the south-west still sold their tin, and much corn was carried across the sea to Europe Moreover, trade was no longer just *barter*—that is exchanging one thing for another. Money (at first in the shape of bars of iron) was beginning to be used, and so commerce was carried on much more easily.

The End of Prehistoric Times. — By now, prehistoric times were over. Even as early as 300 years before Christ, a merchant from Marseilles, called *Pytheas*, wrote an account of the Britons and his dealings with them Other travellers did the same. Fifty-five years before Christ, and again in the next year, *Julius Cæsar*, the great Roman general, invaded Britain, and punished the Britons for helping the *Gauls* against him, and in his account of the wars in which he fought, he has described what he knew about the Britons. Thus the real, written history of this country had begun From that time onwards we have plenty of written accounts of the life of the people, instead of having to depend entirely on remains dug out of the earth

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER I

1 **Questions :—**
   (a) Why are the earliest times called *Prehistoric* ?
   (b) Into what different ages are prehistoric times usually divided ?
   (c) Describe how we have discovered what we know about prehistoric times
   (d) Write an account of a day in your life, as though you were living (i) in the Old Stone Age, (ii) in the New Stone Age
   (e) What were the chief differences between the men of the Old Stone Age and the men of the New Stone Age ?
   (f) Write an account of a day in your life as though you

were a Bronze Age man living (i) in a great Mediterranean city , (ii) in this country

(g) Which parts of this country gained most by the coming of the Bronze Age, and why ?

(h) What do you know about trade in prehistoric times ?

(i) Write an account of a day in your life as though you were an ancient Briton

(j) What do you know about the following ?—Prehistoric , palæolithic , neolithic , Cnossus , Mycenæ , Tiryns , Phœnicians , Tyre , Sidon , Stonehenge ; Goidels , Brythons , Gaelic , Glastonbury , barter , Pytheas , Julius Cæsar , Gauls.

2 Source Exercise :—

" The inland parts of Britain are inhabited by those people who are supposed to have originated in the island , but near the sea there are those who came from *Belgium* to plunder Most of these still have the same names as they had in their old countries They came simply to fight, but they stayed, and began to cultivate the fields

" There is a vast number of people and buildings, which are very like those in *Gaul* , and there are large herds of cattle For money they use lumps or coins of *bronze,* or *iron bars* of a guaranteed weight *Tin* is found in the interior, and iron near the sea, but there is not much iron The bronze they use is imported .

" The *Britons* who live in Kent are much more civilised than the rest, because Kent is by the sea, and so its customs are much like those of Gaul In most of the inland districts they do not grow corn, but live on milk and meat, and they dress in furs." (From Cæsar's *Gallic War*)

(a) What does Cæsar tell us, in these passages, about (i) the early history of the Britons , (ii) life among the Britons , (iii) different kinds of Britons ?

(b) Are there any ways in which Cæsar's account seems likely to be wiong ? If so, can you give a reason for Cæsar's mistake ?

(c) Write notes on the words in italics.

3. Draw pictures or make models of —

(a) Prehistoric tools and weapons

(b) Prehistoric huts and villages of various types

(c) Stonehenge.

4. Cut out cardboard models of prehistoric people, and draw, colour, and cut out paper copies of prehistoric clothing for them.

I A

CHAPTER II

ROMAN BRITAIN

JULIUS CÆSAR was the greatest general of the *Roman Empire*, and it was because the Britons were hindering him from spreading that Empire over all *Gaul* (as France was then called) that he invaded Britain When he had conquered Gaul, the Roman Empire was the greatest there had ever been, spreading from Palestine right across Asia Minor and Europe to the shores of the Atlantic. Such a great Empire, so near to Britain, was bound to influence the Britons, who traded with the Romans and copied their ways

The Roman Conquest of Britain —About a hundred years after Cæsar's invasion (in the year 43 A D), the Roman Emperor *Claudius* decided to conquer Britain and make the Britons pay him taxes, or *tribute*, as the Gauls, Spaniards, Jews, and all the other subjects of the Roman Empire did already It took twenty or thirty years to do this, and then a Roman *governor* was placed over Britain—just as *Pontius Pilate* had been governor of Palestine some years before The greatest of the Roman governors of Britain was *Agricola*, and we know all about him, because a famous Roman historian, *Tacitus*, married his daughter, and wrote the story of his life

Agricola was governor during the years 78 to 85 A D He spread garrisons of Roman troops all over the country, to keep it in order, and gradually the head-

quarters of each garrison became a town. These towns were connected by well-built military roads, along which the soldiers could move quickly to wherever they were wanted. All the roads were built in a scientific manner, like modern roads, and many of them have remained in use till now. Two of the most important roads crossed each other at London, one of these ran from Colchester to Exeter, and the other (called *Watling Street*) from Dover to Chester, and as another road (*Ermine Street*) ran from this junction to Lincoln, London became an important Roman town. Besides these there were the *Fosse Way*, from Exeter to Lincoln, and the *Icknield Way*, which branched from the Fosse Way at Bath and ran north-east to Caister in Norfolk. There was also a network of smaller roads which, before long, covered the whole of Britain.

Agricola decided that he could not conquer the whole of this island (which the Romans called *Britannia*). He therefore built a line of forts across the narrowest part of the island, from the Firth of Clyde to the Firth of Forth, to keep back the uncivilised tribes of the north. Later governors found that they could not keep in order even so much as this, and in the year 122 A D a new line of forts, connected by a high stone wall, was built from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne, and it was called *Hadrian's Wall*, after the Roman Emperor at that time.

The Roman Peace.—All these military arrangements kept the Britons quiet and undisturbed by their enemies. Indeed, the Romans made it their boast that everywhere in their Empire they spread the *Roman Peace*, which enabled all the subjects of the Roman Empire to live quietly in a properly civilised fashion.

The Roman Peace caused trade to flourish, and

great towns were built where trade could be carried on   Many of these towns began as military castles, and often their names end in *-chester*, or *-cester*, or *-xeter*, from the Latin word *castrum* meaning a *castle* But before the Romans had governed Britain for long, most towns were peaceful trading centres, with a

RUINS OF THE GREAT ROMAN BATH, AT BATH
(*By permission of the Municipal Publicity Department, Bath*)

forum (market-place) and shops, a town hall, public baths, and well-built houses

Nothing shows the civilisation of the Romans better than their houses and their baths.   Some of the houses had many rooms with fine stone floors laid out in patterns   There was no need for carpets, because the floors and walls were kept warm by central heating.

A furnace at the back of the house drove hot air along
flues which ran up the walls and under the floors,
and kept the whole house at a fairly even temperature
The baths, which had hot and cold water and heated
dressing-rooms, were warmed in the same way
Besides the public baths (where the charge for admission
was about a farthing) there were plunge baths in
many private houses   One house, of which there are
still remains, had three such baths and fifty other
rooms

Most of these big houses, however, were in the
country, and were called *villas*   They were surrounded
by farms, for the Romans made vast improvements
in agriculture in this country   Corn was grown so
successfully that there was plenty to sell to other parts
of the Empire, and Britain became known as the
Granary of the North   Besides this, the Romans
introduced into this country farm animals and fruit
not known here before—including fowls, geese, hornless
sheep, pears, and cherries   At first, these villas were
owned by the Romans who came from Italy, and
who farmed their land with the labour of British
slaves   Later on, many British chiefs established
villas, which were thus owned by British gentlemen
farmers

For the first two or three centuries, the Britons
worshipped the heathen gods of the Romans   In the
fourth century, however, Christianity became the
religion of the Roman Empire, and, of course, Britain
changed its religion with the rest   Thus, under the
Roman rule, Britain, like most of Western Europe,
was a peaceful, prosperous, Christian, civilised country.

End of the Roman Empire—Then all this was
changed   Savage tribes began to invade the Roman
Empire from the East, and it was threatened with
destruction   While the *Goths* were attacking Italy,

at the heart of the Empire, the *Saxons* from Germany were attacking the east coast of Britain. So violent were these attacks that a special governor was appointed, called the *Count of the Saxon Shore*, with the special duty of protecting the east coast. But the Goths were so troublesome in Italy that fewer and fewer Roman soldiers could be sent to this country, and before long even the few Roman troops which were here had to rush to the defence of Rome. Rome itself was burned down in the year 410 by the Goths, under the leadership of *Alaric*, and after that the Romans never returned to Britain. The Britons were left alone to face the attacks of the Saxons, who were soon joined by other tribes.

Beginning of the Middle Ages.—By the end of the fifth century A D the Empire of Rome was no more. Worse still, the Roman Peace was no more, and the Roman civilisation was gradually forgotten. From about the year 500 A D. Europe, including this country, became less and less civilised. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries there was a great improvement, but Europe had to wait until the fifteenth century for the famous revival of civilisation which is called the *Renaissance* (see Chapter XIV.) For this reason the times between the decay of the ancient civilisation of the Romans and the rise of the modern civilisation of our own day (from about the year 500 till about the year 1500) are usually known as the *Middle Ages* These Middle Ages have a character of their own, which makes them very different from both ancient and modern times.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II

1 Make a time chart to illustrate the history of Britain under the Romans.

2. Questions :—

(a) What did Agricola do while he was governor of Britain ? Why do we know so much about him ?

(b) Make a list of the chief Roman roads, putting after each the names of the towns through which it passed Why were these roads built, and why have many of them lasted so long ?

(c) For what reasons did London become important during the Roman period ?

(d) What were the military arrangements by which the Romans defended Britain ?

(e) How can we tell, by their names, many towns which were once Roman ? Make a list of such towns, explaining, in as many cases as possible, what the names mean

(f) Write an account of a day in your life as though you were a Briton living (i) in a Roman town , (ii) in a Roman *villa*

(g) In what different ways did Britain benefit under Roman government ?

(h) What differences did the Romans make to farming in Britain ?

(i) What caused the break up of the Roman Empire, and how did it affect Britain ?

(j) What do you understand by the name *Middle Ages* ?

(k) What do you know about the following ?—Claudius; tribute , Pilate , Tacitus , Watling Street , Ermine Street , Fosse Way , Icknield Way ; Hadrian , the Roman Peace , forum , villa , the granary of the North ; Goths , Alaric , Saxons , Count of the Saxon Shore

3 Source Exercise :—

"*Julius Cæsar*, the first Roman who landed in Britain, was the discoverer, not the conqueror, of the island He only showed it to those who came after him   .

"Under *Aulus Plautius* and *Ostorius Scapula,* the Southern part of Britain was made into a *province* of the *Empire,* and received a garrison .

"In the first year in which *Agricola* was *governor,* improvements were made, and *peace* began to be enjoyed by the

inhabitants . Agricola encouraged the natives to build temples, law courts, and roomy dwelling-houses   He tried to give some education to the chiefs' sons   so that the Britons, who had always despised the Roman language, now began to use it   Roman dress, especially the *toga*, came into fashion   *Baths*, magnificent porches, and feasts became popular   These new customs made the Britons contented with the Roman rule "

(a) Where do you suppose this passage is taken from ?

(b) How far do you agree with what the writer says about Julius Cæsar ?

(c) What can we learn about Roman Britain from the sort of buildings which Agricola had built ?

(d) Do you think this account is likely to be too favourable to Agricola—and if so, why ?

(e) Find out all you can about, and write notes on, the names and other words in italics

4 Draw maps of .—

(a) The Roman Empire

(b) Roman Britain, showing the chief towns, roads, walls, etc.

5 Draw pictures or make models of —

(a) Any Roman remains or relics you have seen.

(b) Roman houses, baths, walls, etc

(c) Roman soldiers

(d) Britons in Roman dress

CHAPTER III

THE FIRST ENGLISHMEN

The Coming of the English.—The first *Englishmen* did not live in England, and they were not called "Englishmen" They came to this country from lands across the sea, in the north of what we now call Germany Once they had reached Britain they kept on sailing up the rivers (their boats were shallow enough for that), and when they found a suitable spot they built a village and settled there

Most of these English invaders were the Saxons, of whom we read in the last chapter   others were the *Angles*, who were very like the Saxons , and together they are often called the *Anglo-Saxons*. They came in small bands, a few hundreds at a time, just enough warriors to fight their way inland and beat back the people of any British village they found. All the people in each band would be friends and relations, and their leader would be the chief man of the chief family among them   So that, naturally enough, when they built a new village they often named it after their leader and his family

Owing to this custom of theirs, we can often tell a Saxon town from its name, just as we can tell a Roman town   There are many English towns which contain the letters -*ing* in their names   *Ing* means "family," and so *Birmingham* means "the home of the family of Berm" , *Nottingham* (it used to be *Snotengahame*) means "the home of the family of Snote," and so on.

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If a town's name ends in *ham*, it was probably at one time a Saxon settlement. *Ham* is really the same as the Scottish word *hame*, meaning "home", and we see it in names such as *Oldham* and *Grantham* Other Saxon endings are *-ton* (which is the old form of *town*) and *-burgh* or *-borough* Thus *Edinburgh*, for example, simply means "Edwin's borough," and it is so called because it was founded by Edwin, the great Saxon king of Northumbria. *Kingston*, near London, means "King's town", and *Norton, Hampton, Stockton*, and such names, among many others, show where our Saxon ancestors once settled Besides this, some of our English counties are named after the Saxons who settled in them *Sussex* is the old home of the South Saxons, and *Essex* of the East Saxons. Between them is *Middlesex*, and the old name for the lands around the River Thames is *Wessex*.

Life of the Saxons.—Since these bands of Saxon invaders were all relations or friends, they tried to live in their new homes very much as they had lived in their old homes in Germany Usually it would take a long time to make the village as they liked it to be, and to get rid of the old arrangements, if Britons had lived there before them Scores of years would pass before everything was satisfactory, and as fresh bands of Saxons kept coming from Germany, all through the fifth and sixth centuries A D., and making fresh settlements, the villages were not all alike But sooner or later most of them came to be like one another in many ways

There was one big difference between Saxon villages and the villages of the Britons The Britons had usually built their houses a long way apart, with plenty of land between, and this sort of village is called a *hamlet*. But the Saxons preferred to build all their houses close together, so that they could be

easily defended if an enemy came. Often they surrounded all the houses with a ditch and a mound, for the same purpose, and it was the land and houses inside this mound which were called the *tun*, or *burgh*.

The Folk-mote.—Near the houses was the village green, where the folk used to meet to discuss and arrange the village affairs, and these gatherings were called the *folk-mote*, or "folk meeting" It was in the folk-mote that the people tried and punished those who had broken the law or the custom of the village These wrong-doers were not sent to prison as nowadays Instead, any man who wronged another had to make amends by paying him for the damage he had done, and it was the wronged man's relations who forced the other to make the proper payment There was a regular scale of charges laid down by the laws. If a man was murdered, his relatives had to be paid *wergild* (or "man-gold"), and if the murderer refused to pay, the relatives would murder him in revenge The weigild for killing an ordinary man was 200 shillings, or 33 oxen, for killing a *thegn*, or nobleman, it was as much as 1,200 shillings

In the folk-mote, too, the villagers would have to discuss how to cultivate the fields The land round a Saxon village was not divided into many fields, like a modern village Instead of a large number of fields, there were never more than three, and often only two. These two or three fields, of course, were very big indeed, and they were divided up among the families of the village Each family had land according to its importance The family of a *ceorl* or *churl* (which was the ordinary name for a Saxon freeman) was allowed one *hide* (120 acres), a thegn's family was allowed five times as much as that, and the greater Saxon nobles (*eorls*, or *earls*) had 40 hides or more.

The Open Fields.—The land was divided out in a peculiar way. Instead of having its land all together, each family had separate acres of land, scattered about the *open fields*. This was to prevent the quarrelling which would have taken place if all the good land near the river had been given to one family and all the stony land on the hillside to another. But it meant that all the villagers had to join together and cultivate all the land in one way, instead of leaving each man to do as he liked with his own land. So the villagers shared between themselves one or two ploughs, and all the villagers lent their oxen in turn, to pull ploughs and wagons, and so on. As a rule, eight oxen were used to each plough (they were rough ploughs in those days, made by the village blacksmith, and they needed a lot of pulling). And as the ceorls would only have one or two oxen apiece, their turn for lending them to the village came fairly often.

Besides discussing when to plough and sow and reap, the folk-mote had to decide what to grow in each of the fields. One of the fields had to be left *fallow* each year, or the goodness would soon have been taken from the soil. On the rest of the land wheat or oats and barley would be sown, and more barley than wheat, because the bread of the Saxons was made of barley and rye, and barley makes beer, which was the Saxon's favourite drink.

Saxon Homes—All the houses, of course, were made of wood. Often they were only rough huts with no fireplace or chimney—nothing but a stone slab on the floor for the fire, and a hole in the roof to let out the smoke. For furniture they had nothing better than rough forms, benches, and stools, and for beds, only litters of straw or rushes. The Saxons lived very rough lives. When they came to this country they were no better than pirates, and even when

they had settled here, they were still almost half
savage

Still, the ordinary ceorl, with his hide or more of
land, was fairly well off for those times   Even the
theows, or slaves, were not at all wretched   They had
to work for the master to whom they belonged   Their
cottages often had no private allotment, as the ceorl's
cottages had   And they had few acre strips, or none,
in the open fields   Still, they could not be turned

FEASTING IN A SAXON HALL
(*Reduced from Longmans' " Historical Illustrations "*)

away from their houses or land , their masters looked
after them fairly well, if only so that they should work
better, and they were allowed two free loaves every
day

Most of the villagers never left their own village
Each settlement had to make for itself everything
its people needed   The villagers had to grow their
own corn, bake their own bread, and build their own
houses   Even the spades and knives, as well as the
ploughs, were made by the village blacksmith

The Shire-mote and the Fyrd.—Consequently, few Anglo-Saxons used to realise that they had any rulers except the village thegn Occasionally a few of them had to attend the *shire-mote*, which settled the business of the shire, as the folk-mote settled the business of the village In times of war, too, the freemen had to fight in the *fyrd* (as the army of the Saxon kings was called), but not for more than forty days each summer In fact, the first Saxon kings had not much control over their subjects Even when Alfred the Great became king there was much disorder, and we must remember that even Alfred was never king of all England, but only of Wessex, as the south of England was called.

SAXON ARCHITECTURE, EARL'S
BARTON

(*From Gardiner's " A Student's
History of England "*)

The Saxons become Christians.—During the seventh century one very important change took place in the lives of the Saxons This was their conversion to Christianity by Saint Augustine and other famous preachers. When they came from Germany, the Saxons were heathens, worshipping many gods , among these were Woden, Thor, Tiu, and Frea, all of whom

have given their names to days in our week. The
Saxons believed that these gods were cruel and savage,
and the Saxons themselves liked to be as cruel and
savage as their gods But when they became
Christians, they also became more civilised. At first
the new religion made little difference to anybody but
the kings and nobles, who were the first to be con-
verted Gradually, however, the peasants became
more civilised too, and that enabled the kings to
govern them better That was one reason (though
there were many others besides) why, soon after the
time of Alfred, there was one King of all England,
instead of several smaller Saxon kingdoms, such
as *Northumbria, Mercia*, and *Wessex*.

The Witan.—When that happened the kings liked
from time to time to have the advice of the wise men
of the kingdom to help them in ruling it So they
used to call a meeting, or *mote*, of these wise men
The Anglo-Saxon word for *wise men* is *witena*, and so
this assembly of the greatest men in England was
called the *Witenagemot*, or *Witan*, for short Just
as the folk-mote helped to govern each village, and
just as the shire-mote helped to govern each shire
so the Witenagemot helped to govern the whole
kingdom, and thus in some ways it was like our modern
Parliament.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER III

1 Make a time chart showing the chief events in the history of the
   English between 400 and 800 A D.

2 Questions :—

   (*a*) Why did the English invade this country, and where did
        they come from ?
   (*b*) Describe the coming of a band of Englishmen as though
        you were one of them

(c) Make a list of former Saxon settlements near your home. Explain the meaning of as many of their names as you can.

(d) What do the following Saxon names mean ?—Weston , Norton , Sutton , Southampton[1] , Northampton•, Newton , Chorlton , Charlton , Oldham , Northam ; Rotherham , Edinburgh , Peterborough , Bury , Shrewsbury , Sandringham , Darlington , Paddington , Accrington , Clifton ; Scarborough , Essex , Wessex , Sussex , Middlesex.

(e) What were the differences between the villages of the Saxons and those of the Britons ?

(f) Describe a Saxon village—the houses, fields, etc

(g) Write an account of a day in your life as though you were living in a Saxon village

(h) How did the English divide the land they won ? Why was this ?

(i) Find out the area of your school playing-field How many fields of the same size would go to make up the land owned by —a ceorl, a thegn, an eorl ?

(j) What was the religion of the Anglo-Saxons when they came to this country ? When and how did it change ?

(k) What are the meanings of the names of the seven days of the week ? How did they get these names ?

(l) What do you know about the following ?—Hamlet , tun , burgh , folk-mote , shire mote , witenagemot , wergild , eorl , ceorl , thegn , theow , open fields , fallow , fyrd

3 Source Exercises .—

(i) " Formerly, in the laws of the English, people and law went by ranks, each according to his condition, *eorl* and *ceorl* and *thegn* And if a ceorl throve, so that he had fully five *hides* of his own land, then was he thenceforth worthy of *thegn-right* And if a thegn throve, so that he served the king, and on his summons rode among his household, and became an eorl, then was he thenceforth worthy of *eorl-right* " (Stubbs, *Select Charters* By permission of the Oxford University Press)

(a) What can you learn from this passage about the classes into which the Saxon people was divided ?

(b) Write notes on the words in italics

(ii) " This is the ordinance that King Edgar, with the counsel of his *witan*, ordained for the good of all his people . .

[1] *Hamp* usually means "high,"; e , on a hill

5 Thrice in the year let the *burgh-gemot* be held ; and twice a *shire-gemot* " (Stubbs, *Select Charters* By permission of the Oxford University Press)

    (*a*) Find out as much as you can about King Edgar the Peaceful

    (*b*) Write notes on the words in italics

4 Draw a map showing the German and English homes of the English, marking the chief rivers along which you think they sailed

5 Draw a plan of a Saxon village

6 Draw pictures or make models of a Saxon house, Saxon furniture, a Saxon village, Saxon clothing.

ANGLO-SAXON ENGLAND.

CHAPTER IV

THE DANES AND THEIR INFLUENCE

In the last chapter we learned that England was slowly becoming a single kingdom, with one king, instead of several. One reason for this was that the English were becoming more civilised, and were more ready than before to obey a single king. But a more important reason was that the English were being attacked by fierce foes from over the sea, and they needed a king who could lead them against these foes, with a well-drilled army.

The Danish Invasions.—These new invaders were the Danes, who, about 800 A D , began to come from countries in the north of Europe, round the mouth of the Baltic Sea. Most of you will have read in other books how they invaded England along the rivers of the east coast, as the Saxons had done before them , how they fought for the land with King Alfred the Great , and how at length Alfred and the Danes divided England between them, Alfred ruling Wessex, while the Danes lived in the east of the country, and called it the *Danelaw*, because in it they kept their own laws and customs

There is no room in this book to tell over again the story of the Saxons' fighting against the Danes. Instead, we must consider how the Danish invasions altered the ordinary lives of the people.

Fighting the Danes.—In the first place, the Saxons had to have a navy and an army of their own The Danes were splendid sailors, and the Saxons had to fight them by sea as well as by land , and because he built the first really strong fleet of English ships, Alfred the Great is often called the " father of the English navy."
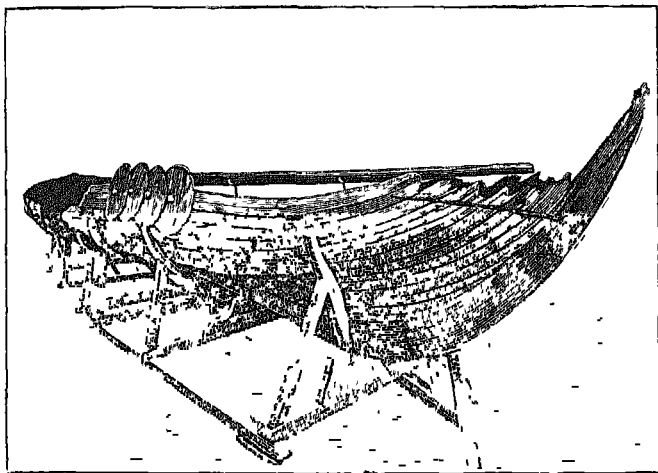
REMAINS OF A DANISH SHIP
(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England "*)

But in a way he was also the father of the English army , and the army made more difference than the navy to the lives of most of the Saxons We have seen already that in Saxon times, every freeman was bound to serve in the *fyrd* when he was needed, although no man could be forced to stay away from home for more than forty days each year

When the Saxon invasions of England had ended, and before the Danish invasions began, there was so

much peace that the fyrd had little fighting to do,
and the freemen were left at home to till their lands.
King Alfred, however, had to make the fyrd strong
again, so that he could resist the Danes   And in order
to prevent the fields from being untended for six
weeks every summer, he made a new arrangement that
while half the freemen were doing their forty days'
service, the other half should look after the crops
Then at the end of the forty days the two halves
changed places for another six weeks.   In this way
there was plenty of corn for food, as well as a good
army for fighting the Danes

The Growth of Towns —Another change caused by
these Danish invasions was that towns began to spring
up all over the country—especially in the east.   Nearly
all the Saxons lived in villages, and the people of
one village had very little to do with the people any-
where else   But these Saxon villages were very easy
for the Danes to attack, with their open fields and
their wooden houses all huddled together round the
village green   And so many of the Saxons began to
build towns in places which were difficult to attack

The safest place for building these towns was near
the top of a hill, and so we find that many of the towns
founded at this time are on hillsides   To make the
town stronger still, a fence was usually built around
it   Often the fence was made of spiked wooden palings,
which were difficult enough for an enemy to climb over
while he was being shot at   And it was more difficult
still when, as often, a deep ditch was dug just outside
the fence.   Sometimes there was a stone wall instead
of a fence, but this was unusual in Saxon times

These towns were really fortresses—safe places to
which an army could retreat when it was beaten,
and where women and children could shelter while
the soldiers were fighting outside   But it is not only

women and children who seek safe shelter in war time
Merchants, too, like to have somewhere where they
can sell their goods without much danger. And
therefore many of these fortified places became market
towns, where goods were bought and sold freely even
in war time

Market Towns.—One of the Saxon words for market
is *port* Nowadays, we only speak of seaside places
as " ports " But at that time, any place to which
goods were brought for sale was called a port   That
is why so many towns whose names end in " port "
are far from the sea—such as *Stockport*   But we must
also remember that in those days, when ships were
small enough to sail up rivers towns a long way inland
might easily be ports in our sense   Even York, for
example, was one of the greatest shipping ports in
the Middle Ages, because ships could sail so far up the
River Ouse

The Danes came from the north of Europe, and so
very much of their trading was done with northern
lands, such as Norway, and even Iceland.   Bristol
was one of the chief ports for this trade with the north ,
and the merchants of Bristol were famous for trading
in slaves, which were shipped from that port to northern
countries   In an old book we can read that

> " the people of Bristol had a hateful custom of buying
> men and women in all parts of England, and exporting
> them to Ireland for gain   Nor were these men
> ashamed to sell into slavery their nearest relatives—nay,
> even their own children "

Danish Towns —Besides the " ports " or market
towns, many towns were built simply because they
could be made into strong fortresses   The Danes
themselves, once they had settled in England, were
as anxious as the Saxons to build towns for defence

They had five famous fortresses in the Danelaw, as well as many less famous ones These were the " five boroughs " of *Nottingham, Derby, Lincoln, Leicester,* and *Stamford*

Of these five towns, four have names which show that they were founded in Saxon times or earlier— before the Danes came *Derby,* however, is a true Danish name, and so are other town names ending in *-by,* which simply means " town " It is as easy to tell Danish towns, as Saxon or Roman towns, by their names *-Thorpe* and *-wick,* meaning " village," and *-toft,* meaning " farm," are other common Danish endings. Towns with names ending in these ways are mostly in the east of England, especially that part which used to be the Danelaw.

Results of the Danish Invasions —The lives of the Saxons were changed in yet another way by the Danish invasion—and perhaps this was the most important change of all We must remember that in those days, when an enemy might suddenly attack a village at any time, the ceorls could never be sure of keeping their houses and fields and crops from being destroyed. We have already seen three ways in which the Saxons tried to make themselves more safe they made a navy, they drilled and strengthened the fyrd, and they built fortified towns. But only a few of them could live in towns , most had to remain in the villages where their land was And serving with the fyrd was all very well for the country as a whole, but it took the ceorls away from defending their own lands.

So the ceorls began to look around for some one who would defend their lands for them Naturally, they turned for help to the nearest great lord, whether he was a thegn or an eorl Usually, the lord consented to protect the ceorl and his family and property, if the ceorl would pay the lord for doing so There

was very little money in those days, and so the ceorl could only pay his lord by serving him, or by sending him presents of fish, corn, eggs, or other produce when he needed it.

The Beginning of Feudalism.—Very often the ceorl gave up his land altogether to the lord, on condition that the lord should protect him   Then the lord returned the land to the ceorl to cultivate, and the ceorl promised to give some of the produce to the lord, and keep the rest for himself and his family   Thus the land had changed owners. Formerly it had belonged to the ceorl who cultivated it , now it belonged to the lord   The lord and the ceorl each owed a duty to the other , the lord had to protect the ceorl , the ceorl had to help to keep the lord, and fight for him when he needed him.

This custom was called *commendation*, because the ceorl *commended* himself to the protection of the lord   It was a queer thing to do, but it was the only way for the ceorls to make sure of being defended   In fact, all Europe, and not only England, was being troubled by invaders   Everywhere was so disturbed that this time is often called the *Dark Ages*   And therefore commendation became quite common in other countries as well as England   In this way every ceorl soon had an *overlord*, and each overlord had a number of ceorls who were his *vassals* or *tenants*   When this system of defending and helping one another had spread all over Europe, it was called *feudalism*   We shall read much more about it in the next chapter.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IV

1 Find out as much as you can about the following, and then write short notes on them   —Alfred the Great , Guthrum , Treaty of Wedmore , Edward the Elder , Ethelred the Unready ; Knut (Canute).

2 Make a time chart showing the chief events concerning the Danes (in other countries besides England) between 850 and 1050 A D

3. Questions :—

    (a) Why did the Danes invade England ? Where did they come from ?

    (b) Describe the coming of a band of Danes as though you were one of them

    (c) What was the *Danelaw* ? Where was it, and why ?

    (d) What do the following Danish names mean ?—Ashby ; Kirkby, Whitby, Grimsby, Norwich, Middlewich, Ipswich, Giggleswick, Lowestoft, Mabelthorpe, Cleethorpes

    (e) Make a list of former Danish settlements near your home. Explain the meaning of as many of their names as you can

    (f) In what ways did the Danish invasions alter the life of the English ?

    (g) What do you know about the Saxon army and navy ?

    (h) How were English towns protected in the time of the Saxons and Danes ?

    (i) Make a list of English town-names ending in *-port* What can you learn from their names ?

    (j) What do the names of the Five Boroughs mean ? By what people was each of them founded ?

    (k) How did the Danish invasions affect trade ?

    (l) What was *commendation* ? Why was it so common in the Dark Ages ?

4. Source Exercises :—

    (1) " When the Danes dispersed to their ships, then ought the *fyrd* to have gone out to oppose them if they should land But the fyrd went home And when they were eastward, then was the fyrd kept westwards , and when they were southwards, then was our fyrd northwards Then were all the *Witan* summoned to the king, to counsel how the land might be defended But although something was then decided, it did not last even one month At last there was no chief who would gather a fyrd , nor at the last would even one *shire* assist another "

    (a) This passage is from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* Find out all you can about it

    (b) What can you learn from this passage about (i) the author , (ii) the Saxons , (iii) the Danes ?

    (c) Write notes on the words in italics

(11) "Let no man bargain out of *port*, but let him have the witness of the *port reeve*, or of some other truthful man who can be trusted No cattle shall be bought and sold except within cities, and that before three faithful witnesses "

- (*a*) This passage is from the laws of King Edward the Elder Find out all you can about him
- (*b*) What does this law order, and why ?
- (*c*) Who do you suppose the *port reeve* was ? There were other English officials called *shire reeves* What do you suppose were their duties ? Can you think of any modern word which comes from the words *shire reeve* ?

5. Draw maps of —
- (*a*) The old and the new homes (in other countries as well as England) of the Danes
- (*b*) Knut's empire.
- (*c*) England in the Dark Ages, showing the Danelaw and the chief Danish settlements Where are most of these settlements, and why ?

6. On page 27 is a picture of the remains of an old Danish ship Draw a picture, or make a model, of the ship as you think it was when the Danes were using it

7. Draw pictures, or make models, of Danish people in the clothing worn by the Danes.

CHAPTER V

The Norman Conquest and Feudalism

WE have now read, in this book, about more than a thousand years of British and English history. During this time we have learnt about invasion after invasion by many different races. After the country had been conquered by Goidels and Britons and Romans (as we read in Chapter I.), all these three races were driven away by the Anglo-Saxons, then the Anglo-Saxons were driven from a large part of eastern England by the Danes, and a Dane (Knut) was one of the greatest kings England had known.

The Norman Conquest.—Now these Danes—who are often called *Norsemen*, or " North-men "—had invaded many other countries besides England—France, Italy, and even America. In France they changed their name from " Noisemen " to *Normans*, and in the north of France was the Danish kingdom of *Normandy*. You will have read in other books how, in the year 1066, Duke William of Normandy conquered England and became its king. This *Norman Conquest* (in a way, it was really the last of the Danish invasions) caused great changes in the government of England, about which you will have learnt already. Let us see, now, how it changed the ordinary lives of the people after the long years of fighting were over.

The Norman Conquest was, of course, one of those attacks which the Saxons were always fearing. We have seen in the last chapter how they tried to secure safety by " commending " themselves to some lord

to defend them   Imagine that you are a " ceorl "
in a Saxon village, and consider what happens to you
during the Norman Conquest   You are the " vassal "
of your village " thegn," and you help him to fight
the foe when he reaches your district.   But you are a
Saxon, and Saxons everywhere are being defeated
Your thegn and his army are beaten, and your district
is in the hands of the Normans.

WILLIAM I IN ARMOUR (FROM THE BAYEUX TAPESTRY)
(From Tout's ' A History of Great Britain ")

You are only a ceorl, and so the Norman general
takes no notice of you   But your thegn is more
important, and he has to be punished for daring to
resist William the Conqueror   His lands are taken
from him and given to a Norman   This means that
your overlord is now a Norman instead of a Saxon
You do not like it, your old thegn was a Saxon like
yourself, speaking the same language   Your new
Norman overlord is a foreigner, and you cannot

understand him because he speaks French. But it is useless to resist any longer, so you settle down to your ordinary life again, and in a few years' time there is not so much difference, after all, except that you now have an overlord you do not like

Doomsday Book.—This sort of thing went on all over England. Norman followers of William the Conqueror took the places of the Saxon thegns of the time of King Edward the Confessor   But William was determined that his *barons* (as the Norman nobles were called) should obey him better than the thegns had obeyed their Saxon kings   He resolved to find out exactly how much land each baron held ; how much tax (*geld,* or " gold," as the Saxons called it) he could afford to pay the king , and also how many men there were in England fit to be soldiers when they were needed   So he sent round his agents to every village in England to find out everything they could about it. When the agents had all brought back the information William wanted, he had it all written down in a huge book, called *Doomsday Book.*   This book is still in existence, and from it we can learn very much indeed about England in the time of the Normans

Birmingham in Doomsday Book.—Let us see what Doomsday Book says about Birmingham   It was written in the year 1086, and at that time Birmingham was one of the smallest villages in England   It is now the biggest city in the country, except London, and has over 1,000,000 inhabitants.   In 1086 there were fifty inhabitants at most—not enough to fill the smallest street in Birmingham to-day .

Here is Doomsday Book's account of Birmingham —

" Richard holds BERMINGEHAM of William.   There are 4 hides.   There is land for 6 ploughs   there is 1 plough in the demesne   There are 5 villeins and 4 bordars and 2 ploughs   There is a wood half a mile long and 4 furlongs broad.   In the time of King Edward it was worth

20 shillings, and it is still worth the same. In King Edward's time Ulwine held it "

There are three words there which need explaining, and then we can see how much we can learn from this account *Demesne* is a French word, meaning " domain "—that is, the private land belonging to the landlord, Richard *Villeins* is another word brought in by these French-speaking Normans, and it means the same as the Saxon word " ceorl " The *bordars* were poorer men than the villeins, owning very little land except a small plot near their cottage, and for this reason they are often called *cottars*, or " cottagers "

The Norman Conquest of Birmingham.—What happened to Birmingham during the Norman Conquest ? In the last line of the account in Doomsday Book, we learn that " in King Edward's time Ulwine held it." Ulwine is a Saxon name, and he was the Saxon thegn or overlord of Birmingham before the Conquest But the Normans beat him, as they beat all the Saxons, and his lands (with other villages besides Birmingham) were given to a Norman noble

This Norman nobleman was William Fitz-Ansculf, and he is the " William " mentioned in the first line He received Birmingham, along with the other lands of Ulwine, as a reward for helping King William I to conquer the Saxons In return, he had to promise to pay taxes to the king, to fight for him, and to make the villeins or ceorls fight too, when they were needed

But William Fitz-Ansculf was a great man, and Birmingham was a tiny place, hardly worth his while to trouble about So William Fitz-Ansculf handed over Birmingham to a less important Norman, Richard, who had to promise Fitz-Ansculf to pay him the taxes which Birmingham owed to the king, to fight when Fitz-Ansculf wanted him, and to make the villagers of Birmingham fight too, when necessary.

We can represent what happened in a diagram like this :—

King
William I   granted Birmingham to
William Fitz-Ansculf   who granted Birmingham to
Richard of Birmingham   who granted lands to
the Villeins, etc , of Birmingham

And in return —

The Villeins of Birmingham   owed duties to
Richard of Birmingham   who owed duties to
William Fitz-Ansculf   who owed duties to
King
William I
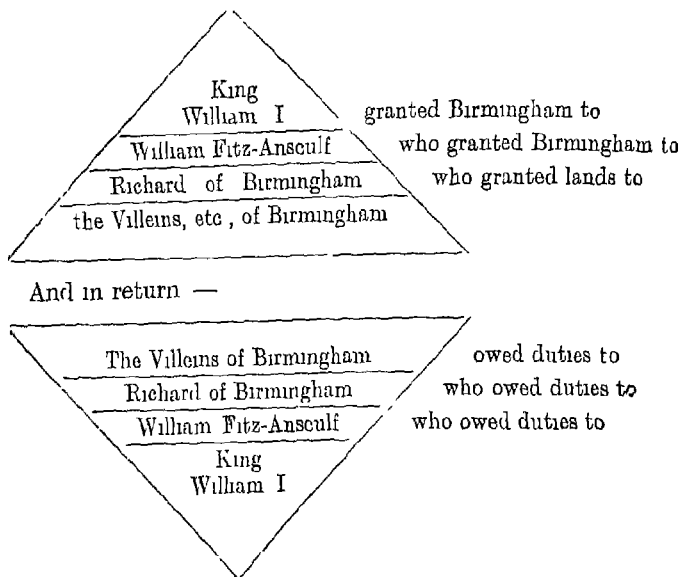
Thus, William Fitz-Ansculf was a *tenant* of the king , Richard of Birmingham was a tenant of Fitz-Ansculf , and the Birmingham villagers were tenants of Richard, who was their *overlord* Richard's overlord was William, and William's overlord was King William I Fitz-Ansculf, who was the tenant of the king himself, was called a *Tenant-in-Chief* , Richard, who was only the tenant of somebody less than the king, was called a *Sub-tenant*.

The Feudal System.—William the Conqueror and his followers shared out in this way the land of all England. There were a small number of tenants-in-chief, holding their lands of the king , there were a much larger

number of sub-tenants, and a still larger number of villeins So we can make our diagrams represent the arrangement of the whole of England, in this way :—

The King grants lands to
Tenants-in-Chief who grant lands to
Sub-tenants who grant lands to
Villeins, etc

And in return —

Very many *Villeins* owe duties to
many *Sub-tenants* who owe duties to
a few *Tenants-in-Chief* who owe duties to
The King
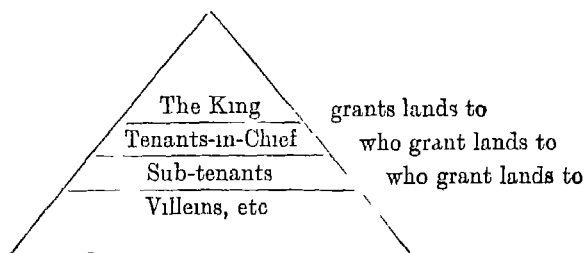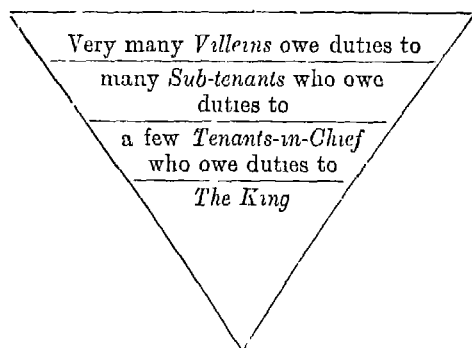
That is what we mean by Feudalism, or the *Feudal System*, as it is sometimes called   It is much the same as the feudalism of the Saxons, about which we read in the last chapter   But it is much more developed than Saxon feudalism   Under the feudalism of the Normans it is not only the villagers who have an overlord to obey, but the overlord as well, and *his* overlord, and so on, until we reach the king   And even

kings said that God was their overlord, and that they were God's *vassals*, just as the tenants-in-chief were the king's vassals, as the sub-tenants were vassals of the tenants-in-chief, and as the sub-tenants had villagers for vassals.

Homage.—In this way every man had an overlord, and every overlord had men as his vassals   Now the Latin for *man* is *homo*, and promising an overlord that you would be his " man " or " vassal " was called *homage*.   There was a special ceremony for doing homage   The vassal knelt before the overlord with his hands raised together, as if to pray, and as the overlord clasped the vassal's hands in his own, the vassal said —

> " I become your man from this day forward, of life and limb and earthly worship, and unto you I shall be true and faithful, and shall hold faith with you for the lands I hold of you."

After this ceremony they were overlord and vassal, and the vassal was bound to serve his lord, and above all, fight for him   If the vassal was a villein, then he simply had to fight himself   If he was a fairly rich sub-tenant he had to bring others, besides himself, to fight.

Military Tenure.—Feudalism is, at first, a difficult thing to understand   It includes so many things, and it is hard to remember them all   But of all the many things which we have to connect in our minds with feudalism, there are none so important as these two—landholding, and the promise to fight when needed.   Another word for landholding is *tenure* , fighting is *military* , and so *military tenure* describes, in a single phrase, the most important part of feudalism.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER V

1. Make time charts showing the chief events, between 1050 and 1100, connected with (*a*) the Norman Conquest of England , (*b*) the Norman Conquest of the district where you live

2 Questions —

(*a*) What different races have conquered England ? Which of them have helped to make up the English people ?

(*b*) Describe the Norman Conquest of your district as though you were taking part in it as (*a*) a Saxon ceorl , (*b*) a Norman noble

(*c*) What was Doomsday Book ? Who had it written, and why ? What did it say ?

(*d*) Write an account of your town or village in 1086 as it might have been in Doomsday Book Then try to find out what Doomsday Book actually says about it

(*e*) If you can find a Doomsday Book description of any place near where you live, write an account, from what it tells you, of the Norman Conquest of that place

(*f*) What did William the Conqueror do with England when he had conquered it ?

(*q*) What had feudal overlords and vassals to do for one another ?

(*h*) What was *Feudalism* ? Can you make any other diagrams to represent it, in addition to those given on pages 38-39 ?

(*i*) What do you know about the following ?—Normans , vassal , overlord , baron , hide , demesne , villein , bordar , cottar , tenant , tenant-in-chief , sub-tenant ; homage , military tenure.

3. Source Exercise .—

" Robert Fitz-Theobald holds SHIFNAL of Earl Roger. Earl Morcar used to hold it   There are $7\frac{1}{2}$ *hides* paying *geld* In the *demesne* are 9 ox-teams and 26 *serfs,* and there are 37 *villeins* and 6 *bordars* with 27 ox teams   There is a wood big enough to fatten 300 pigs   In the time of King Edward it was worth £15, and afterwards 6s   It now pays £15 rent." (*Doomsday Book.*)

(*a*) Shifnal was one of 357 manors held in Shropshire by Roger Montgomery, Earl of Shrewsbury   Find out all you can about him

(*b*) Who were " Earl Morcar " and " King Edward " ? What do you know about them ?

(*c*) What can you learn from this passage about the Norman Conquest of Shifnal ?

(*d*) Make a diagram (see pages 38-39) showing the various lords, tenants, etc , of Shifnal in 1086, and their connection with one another

(*e*) Write notes on the words in italics.

2 A

CHAPTER VI

NORMAN NOBLES AT HOME

WHEN William of Normandy had conquered England he had to keep it in order. He had made himself master of the English people, and the English people disliked having a Norman for their king. Some of them revolted, and all of us know something about Hereward the Wake, who was the last English leader to be beaten. But even when they were beaten the English had to be kept obedient to their foreign masters. We must remember that William I and all the kings of England for a hundred years after the Norman Conquest *were* foreigners. So were the Norman nobles. They spoke French, they had foreign ways, and the English would not have obeyed them if they had not been compelled to do so.

Norman Castles.—Soon after the Conquest, therefore, most of the great Norman barons were busy building castles in the strongest places they could find. In Chapter IX we shall learn what these castles were like, but we must realise, now, what they were for. They were surrounded by thick, high walls, and other defences, and in time of fighting the Norman barons and their followers could take refuge in these castles and be safe from their enemies. It was very difficult to capture a castle in the Middle Ages, but it was very easy to rush out of a castle, beat the enemy when he was not expecting you, and get back

quickly again to safety For this reason the side which held most castles usually won in a medieval war

Each nobleman who was a follower of William the Conqueror built a castle for defending the villages (or *manors* as they were now called) which the king had given him William Fitz-Ansculf, of whom we read in the last chapter, held forty-four manors near Birmingham, as well as others elsewhere , and so he built a castle at Dudley, on the edge of a hill about ten miles from Birmingham itself Another famous Norman noble, Roger Montgomery, received as many as 357 manors in Shropshire He therefore built a castle at Shrewsbury, the chief town of Shropshire, and from that time he was called Earl Roger of Shrewsbury.

In this way castles were built all over England But before long most of these castles were no longer needed, because the English people soon came to like the rule of the Normans The Norman kings were much stronger rulers than the old English kings had been, and they kept the country in better order Besides, the Norman kings were as fair to their English subjects as they were to their Norman subjects It was therefore quite natural that the conquered English soon became contented. Before long the Normans and English were quite friendly, so that they were soon one united people, and the Normans, as much as the Saxons, called themselves Englishmen

The King and the Castles.—Some castles still remained, because warfare was very common in the Middle Ages, and both the king and the nobles wanted places of safe refuge whenever it broke out. Usually, however, the king kept control of these castles, instead of letting the nobles who lived there do as they liked with them This was because the king knew that his barons were fond of fighting each other for their lands,

and the only way to keep the country free from fighting
was to keep the castles under his own control   On the
borders of Scotland and Wales, however, there were
more castles, and the barons there controlled them
themselves   This was necessary in order to defend
England against the Scots and the Welsh, who used
to invade the villages and steal the cattle from
them

Travelling Barons.—We have just seen that Roger
of Shrewsbury owned 357 manors   Most of these, of
course, were held by sub-tenants who were Roger's
vassals   But Roger himself held quite a number of
them, and he used to live in all of these in turn   This
was the custom of all the Norman nobles, and even of
the king himself   The king and his court did not
stay in one place as they usually do now   Instead,
they moved about from manor to manor, and the
nobles did the same.

There was a good reason for this   Every noble
had a small " court " of his own, just as the king had
a large one   These followers all needed food, and there
were too many of them to be fed in one village all
the year round   So they travelled about, around all
the manors held by the baron, and each manor had to
be ready for the lord's coming, with plenty of food
for him and his followers

This meant that the baron had to have a large house
in every manor which he used to visit regularly   It
was called the *Manor House,* and it was usually the
biggest building (except, sometimes, the church) in
the village   He and his followers lived in this house
and near it, so long as there was food for them   When
the food began to run short they moved on to the
next manor

To us this seems the wrong way of doing things.
Why was not the food brought to the baron and his

followers, at some fixed home, instead of their having to go to where the food was ? The reason was this: In the Middle Ages the roads were very bad indeed. There was no road surface such as we have to-day. In muddy weather it was quite impossible for carts to move at all along most of the roads Now food would have to be conveyed in carts, and so, if the barons had stayed at one place all the winter, the food

A MEDIEVAL MANOR HOUSE (STOKESAY CASTLE, SHROPSHIRE)

for which they waited might never have reached them   It was much easier for the baron and his followers to travel on horseback from manor to manor.

It was only the wealthier barons, the owners of many manors, who lived in this way   Many sub-tenants who held only one manor stayed there all the year round   But these lords had only a few followers, and so they could get all the food they needed from the village in which they lived

The Manor House.—We must not imagine that these manor houses were anything like the homes of country gentlemen nowadays Nearly all of them were built of wood, like the cottages of the villagers There were no fine staircases, often there were no staircases at all, instead, all the house was on one floor, like a modern bungalow There were no corridors, either In small manor houses the only way of getting from one end of the house to the other was by passing through the rooms in between In big manor houses there were often several staircases, and to get from one set of rooms to another it was necessary to go outside, enter another door, and mount another staircase

The Great Hall.—The chief room in every manor house was the *Hall* This was the largest room in the house, and it was used for all sorts of purposes, including meals—and so there were tables in the hall. But it was used for other purposes, too, and so the tables were simply boards on trestles, and could be taken away when the meal was over. At one end of the hall was a low platform, or *dais*, and on this there was a fixed table, where the lord himself, his wife and children, and the more important people sat The servants, and people not of high rank, sat at the trestle tables in the lower part of the hall, where the lord could watch them as they ate, and see that the meal was conducted properly In this large hall there was usually no fireplace, but only the same sort of stone slab that the Saxons had had in their cottages, with the hole in the roof to let out the smoke. This slab was in the middle of the room, and when the inhabitants gathered near the fire on a winter's night they really were sitting *round* the fire, and not half-round it, as we do.

Rushes were still the only covering for the floors,

even in the houses of the rich. The walls were covered, not with paper or distemper, but with hanging cloths These cloths were called the *arras*, and often they were made of *tapestry* specially woven (by the ladies of the household) into favourite patterns or even pictures This arras was needed to keep out the draughts, but it was also very popular with the children, who used it for hide-and-seek and other games

It was at night that the greatest change took place in the hall Tables were removed and heaps of rushes or straw thrown down all over the floor—for beds ! For there were no special bedrooms Most of the household slept in the great hall—and the dogs and cats, of which there were many, slept with them Many of them never bothered to undress at nights For one thing, it was too cold , but in any case, medieval people were never very clean in their habits

Usually there was a door at each end of the hall. One of these doors led into the kitchen, which was often quite small As often as possible cooking was done out of doors—it was too smoky inside in those days of no fireplaces The other door led into the most comfortable room in the house It was often at the sunny end of the house, and so it was called the *solar*, or " sun-room "

The Solar.—But the solar was meant to be warm, even when the weather was not sunny. It was the private sitting-room of the lord and lady of the manor, and so it was the only room in the house with a proper fireplace Besides this, it had chairs , they were made of wood, without cushions , but they were far more comfortable than the rough benches in the hall Often, too, they would be covered with the skins of animals, and there were skin rugs on the floor. The solar was made to look more cosy by painting the walls and roof Blue and gold and red were favourite colours, and

often the ceiling was painted with gold stars on a
blue ground, to look like the sky at night-time.

Besides these three rooms (the hall, the kitchen,
and the solar) there was usually nothing else, in most
manor houses, except a few storerooms and pantries.
Food—and especially flour and salted meat—had to
be kept right through the winter, because fresh food
could not be got from other places, and so the larders
were one of the most important parts of the building.
In the larder of one manor house we are told that there
were at one time " the carcasses of twenty oxen and
fifteen pigs, 8,000 herrings, twenty pounds of almonds,
thirty pounds of rice, six barrels of lard, two quarters
of salt "—besides the flour needed for bread.

From what we have read in this chapter it is easy
to see that even the lives of the nobles in Norman
times were far less comfortable than ours. And it
was worse still, because there were no amusements
except the ordinary games, and hardly anybody could
read books   In a later chapter we shall see how the
nobles managed to spend their spare time.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VI

1 Find out as much as you can about the following —Roger
   Montgomery, Earl of Shrewsbury , Robert Bellême, Earl of
   Shrewsbury ,   the Palatine Earldom of Shrewsbury ,   the
   Bayeux Tapestry.

2. Questions .—
     (a) Make a list (with dates) of long wars in the Middle Ages.
          Why were medieval wars so long ?
     (b) Find out who built the Norman castle nearest to your
          home, how many manors he held, and their names
     (c) For what purposes were castles used ?
     (d) Which castles were controlled by the king, and which by
          the nobles ?   Why was this ?
     (e) In what different ways did the tenants-in-chief make use
          of the many manors granted to them ?

(f) Write an account of your life as though you were one of the followers of a baron.

(g) Imagine you are a villein awaiting the arrival in your village of the lord of your manor Write an account of your doings.

(h) Describe a manor house (if possible, one you have seen)

(i) In what ways was a medieval manor house less comfortable than most modern houses ?

(j) Write an account of a meal at a manor house as though you are (i) a servant, (ii) a lord or lady

(k) Write an account of a day in your life as though you are a boy or girl living in a medieval manor house

(l) What do you know of the following ?—Manor, manor house, baron, arras, tapestry, solar

3 Make a plan of a medieval manor house (preferably one you have seen).

4 Draw a map showing the lands ruled by the Norman kings of England What can you learn from the map about these kings ?

5. Make models or pictures of (a) a medieval manor house (interior and exterior); (b) a Norman nobleman in armour, (c) a Norman nobleman in the ordinary dress of the time.

IF we wish to realise what a medieval manor looked like, we must first get rid of many of our notions of a modern village   Of course, there was usually a church, as now—perhaps the same one that is still standing   But hardly any other building in the village would be of stone, except the manor house—and not always that   The cottages were of wood and plaster, or even mud.   There were no well-made lanes and no hedges round the fields   Instead, as we read in Chapter III., the fields were open, without anything to enclose them   And instead of being clustered round the farm to which they belonged (as fields are now), there were only two or three of them—enormous fields which were sometimes a mile or more in length.

The Open Fields—Each of these fields was split up into a number of narrow strips, as in Saxon times, each strip being about an acre in extent   The size of the strips was fixed in this way   A rod (or " pole," or " perch "), $5\frac{1}{2}$ yards long, was used to measure the width , 4 rods (the length of a cricket-pitch nowadays) was allowed for the width of every strip, and ten times that distance for its length   This gave 4,840 square yards as the size of an average strip, and that is still the size of our acre   When the strip was being ploughed, each furrow would naturally be 220 yards

Section of field showing strips, all the three fields would be divided in this way. The dark strips belong to one holding, as it is evidently a large one, it may be the lord's domain.

Norman mound with ruins of unlicensed castle, destroyed by order of Henry II

Manor House

The Hall

Yard

Manor Garden and enclosed part of Domain

Field I.

(wheat this year)

A headland

Bailiff's House

House of a Freeman

Church

Priest's House

The lord's water mill

Villeins' Cabins with small enclosed plots

Field II.

(fallow this year cattle grazing)

The Common

Meadow

(in hay)

Field III.

(oats this year)

The Brook

hurdles set up around growing crops

(The lord hawks here)

O-a-k w-o-o-d-s

pannage for 1000 swine

(the lord hunts here)

P-o-o-l

Fowler's Hut

in length , and so 220 yards was called a "*furrow-long*," or, as we now spell it, a *furlong* It was usual to drive seventy-two furrows up and down each acre strip, and as the strips were each supposed to represent enough land for a day's ploughing, we can see that the ploughman was forced to walk 9 miles in the course of his day's work.

Villeins.—In the time of the Saxons the land had been divided out amongst the families of the village, but this was altered after the Norman Conquest The Normans called the village labourers *villeins*, from the French word *ville*, meaning a town or village , and it was customary for each villein to have about thirty of the acre strips—ten in each of the three fields into which the village was divided As the Saxon custom of leaving one field fallow every year was continued, the villeins had about twenty strips at a time in cultivation. These thirty strips, forming the villein's allotment, were called a *virgate* They were scattered about the fields, so that the strips of all the villeins were mixed up together, and had to be separated by heaps of rubbish, called *balks*. And in among the villeins' strips were the strips of the lord, whose " allotment " (including the farm land and orchards round the manor house) was called the *demesne* (or *domain*), or " lordship."

Every villein was entitled to his virgate of land, and the lord could not take it from him But the strips were changed about from time to time (sometimes every year), so that everybody had a turn with the best land We must remember, too, that the villeins were the vassals, or tenants, of the lord, and had to pay him rent for their holdings Only this rent, like most payments in the Middle Ages, was not made in money Instead, each of the villeins had to do *week-work*, that is, to cultivate the lord's land for

, one, two, or perhaps three days a week. The rest
ie week was his own, for tilling his own allotment ,
pt that in times of extra hard work, such as harvest,
villeins had to put in overtime (or *boon-work*) for
lord   As these were just the times when the
in wanted more leisure for his own strips, this
i-woik sometimes made the villeins very dis-
ented, as we shall read in another chapter.

The **Bailiff.**—Even at ordinary times the villeins
led watching, or they would stay away from their
x-work on the demesne and work on their own
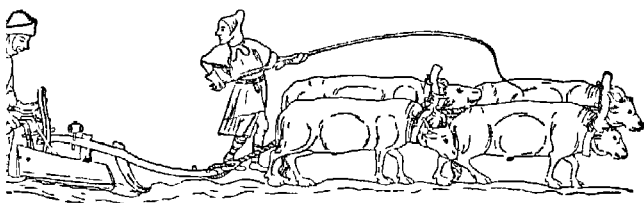
PLOUGHING IN THE MIDDLE AGES.
(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England "*)

is instead   As we saw in the last chapter, the
of the manor was very often absent, either on
ness or living on some other manor of his   For
reason he had to have some one on each of his
iors to see that the demesne was properly tilled,
this person was called the *bailiff*, or *reeve*   There
n old book (written in the reign of Edward I
a lawyer who was in prison and wanted to pass
y the time) from which we can learn what the
iff's duties were ·—

   " The bailiff should rise early in the morning and
see that the plough-teams are yoked , then he should
walk round and inspect the tilled fields, woods, meadows.

and pastures   Then he should visit the ploughers at their work, and take care that the oxen are not unyoked till a full day's work has been done "

In fact, it was the bailiff's business to see that no man cheated his lord, and so he needed to be constantly on the watch among the villagers and other people with whom the lord had dealings

There was a reeve, or bailiff, among the twenty-nine pilgrims, whom Chaucer describes in his " Canterbury Tales " (see Chapter XI)   Besides being the greatest English poet in the Middle Ages, Chaucer was a tax-collector, and he was a shrewd judge of men's character. This is how he describes the reeve —

" Well could he keep a garner or a bin ;
There was no auditor could on him win
Well wist he, by the drought and by the rain,
The yielding of his seed, and of his grain
All the lord's cattle, sheep, and dairy,
His swine, his horse, his store, and his poultry,
Was wholly under this reeve's governing
He had been bound to do the reckoning
Since his lord reached the age of twenty years
There was no man could catch him in arrears "

Manorial Courts.—Besides keeping the villeins to their work, the bailiff might have to judge between them when disputes arose. Medieval peasants were hard, rough men, and they had plenty of quarrels , and so there had to be special manorial law courts to see that justice was done   Usually these courts were held, not by the bailiff, but by a higher officer called the *steward* ; or even by the lord himself, if he was living on the manor. Every three weeks or so this *Court Baron* would meet to settle the various disputes, and at longer intervals, when there was some serious crime to be punished, another law court, called the *Court Leet*, met to deal with the matter

We can easily imagine the sort of quarrels which needed to be settled When a villein died there were disputes about who should have his land , sometimes one man's cattle strayed into another man's corn, and the first man was made to pay damages , or, perhaps, a villein was discovered stealing fruit, or firewood, or hay, from the demesne

Woodland and Meadow.—No doubt the villeins of the Middle Ages were often tempted to steal, since they were never very well off, and, indeed, the word " villain " has come to mean a dishonest man But there was less temptation to such dishonesty than we might think. It is true that a yearly allotment of about twenty acres was not enough to maintain a villein and his family all the year round. But we must remember that these men had far fewer expenses than a modern farm labourer Except for their week-work and boon-work, and special presents to the lord, such as eggs at Easter and poultry at Christmas, they had very little to pay There were always plenty of woods in the Middle Ages, where the peasants could get as much firewood as they wished And as most of the trees were oak or beech, the pigs were turned out there in the autumn to feed (for nothing) on acorns and beech-nuts

Besides the woods, every village had its meadow-land, and many villeins had their share of the hay harvest Then there was plenty of land beyond the three fields, some of it rough waste, some of it rich in pasture All this land was *common*—that is, it belonged to all the villagers equally, and there they could feed their sheep and their bullocks The latter were so hard worked at the plough that they were always too tough for meat , and as the sheep were wanted for wool, and were rarely any bigger than the sheep-dogs themselves, the chief meat of the Middle

Ages was pork, and so there had to be a swineherd in every village

The Mill.—When the harvest was gathered in and the corn threshed, there was very little carting away from the village Nearly all the grain was needed by the villagers, who made not only their own bread, but most things they needed—even clothes, and boots if they wanted them Still, the grain had to be ground, and the only place where this could be done was the mill—a water-mill if there was a stream strong enough , if not, a windmill instead

Usually the mill belonged to the lord, and the miller was his servant Sometimes, however, the miller himself owned the mill In any case, the villagers usually paid for the grinding of their corn, not with money, but by giving the miller some of the corn for himself. Like many men in the Middle Ages, the millers were often none too honest, and they had a reputation for keeping back more than their fair share of the grain In one of the " Canterbury Tales," Chaucer says about a miller —

> " A thief he was, forsooth, of corn and meal,
> And that a sly one, using for to steal."

The miller had a special work to do, but even he often had some strips in the open fields which he cultivated when he was not busy at the mill. So had the blacksmith, and the carpenter, and others who had different tasks from most of the villeins. Among these special workers was one whom we should expect to find living differently This was the village parson. Most villages had their own church and their own priest , and the priest, who was very often a poor man's son, remained a poor man himself, tilling his own strips with the other villagers in the open fields, except on holy days, when the villagers followed him to church.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VII

1. Find out as much as you can about Chaucer and "The Canterbury Tales," and then write a short composition about them

2. Questions :—
   - (a) What modern land-measures are connected with the Three-Field System ?
   - (b) How long would a medieval ploughman take to plough your school playing-field ? How many fields this size would make a virgate ? Bearing this in mind, what would you say was the chief difference between a medieval villein and a modern farm-labourer ?
   - (c) What exactly is meant by each of the four things (" tilled fields, woods, meadows, and pastures ") mentioned in the extract on pages 53-54 ? What would each of them be used for ?
   - (d) What different classes of people lived on a medieval manor ?
   - (e) What servants of the lord lived on the manor, and what were the duties of each ?
   - (f) What were the duties owed (i) by villeins to their lords ; (ii) by lords to the villeins ?
   - (g) Write an account of a week's work on a medieval manor as though you were (i) a bailiff , (ii) a villein , (iii) a miller , (iv) a swineherd , (v) a priest
   - (h) By what different methods were order and justice maintained on a medieval manor ?
   - (i) In what different ways would the Three-Field System make it difficult to introduce new methods of farming ?
   - (j) What were the chief (i) good points , (ii) bad points, about the Three-Field System ?
   - (k) What do you know about the following ?—Furlong , virgate , villein , balks , demesne , week-work , boon-work , bailiff , reeve , steward ; Court Baron , Court Leet , commons

3 Source Exercises :—

   (1) " To all to whom the present writing shall come, greeting from Morgan Gogh   Know ye that I have granted to John Druwer a cottage, and three acres, one rood of *arable land* in the fields of Modbury, whereof one *acre* lies in Brokerig field, between the *lord s land* on each side , one acre lies in Totcombe field, between the lord's land and the land of Thomas Cobbe , three roods in Brokerig between the lord's land and the land

of William Cockes, half an acre there between the land of
Thomas Cobbe and the land of Ralph Smale, and half an acre
of *meadow* lies in Sturtilmead, between the meadow of Gilbert
the Schoolmaster on each side, with *pasture* for one *plough-
beast* and two *draught beasts* in *common* " (Bland, Brown, and
Tawney, *Select Documents Illustrating English Economic History*
By permission of Messrs G Bell & Son)

(a) To what class would each man mentioned in this extract
belong ?

(b) Draw a plan of this manor of Modbury as you think it
may have been, marking on it all the allotments
mentioned

(c) Write notes on the words in italics.

(ii) " 23 November, 1278   Michael the *Reeve* complains
of Richer, son of Jocelin, and Richard the Reeve and his wife,
that they charged him, in the churchyard, on Sunday the 30th
October, with having collected his own hay by the *labour
services* due to the lord, and of having reaped his own corn
in autumn by the *boon-works* done by the lord's *tenants*, and with
having released the tenants from their usual services, on
condition that they leased their land to him at a low price "
(Bland, Brown, and Tawney, *Select Documents Illustrating
English Economic History*. By permission of Messrs G Bell
& Son)

(a) Explain exactly what Michael the Reeve is supposed
to have done

(b) Where would this complaint be made, and who would
settle the quarrel ?

(c) How long do you suppose that Michael and Richard
had been unfriendly ?

(d) Write notes on the words in italics

(iii) " There is a *meadow* called ' *Clayhurste Meadow*,' and
it contains 35 acres, half a rood, and 13 *perches* of meadowland
and *pasture*. To the south of it there is a piece of meadowland
and pasture containing 10 acres and 7 perches, but it is called
' Twelveacres,' and every year it is divided into 12 *strips*,
measured out equally by *rod*, of these 12 strips *the lord* has,
in one year, numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11, and the heirs of
Freeman and Walter the *Reeve* have between them in the
same year, numbers 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12. Next year the lord
has the strips which the *tenants* had before, and the tenants
have the lord's strips   Thus every year the lord has 5 acres
and $3\frac{1}{2}$ perches " (*Selden Society Publications*, Vol. II.   By
permission of the Council of the Selden Society)

    (*a*) What kinds of tenants are *not* mentioned in this extract ?

    (*b*) What is the difference between this land and the land usually shared out among the villagers ?

    (*c*) Write notes on the words in italics

4 Make plans of —

    (*a*) Any medieval village

    (*b*) Your own town or village as it probably appeared in the Middle Ages

    (*c*) The three fields of a medieval village, showing (i) the scattered strips held by any one villein , (ii) the demesne, including the lord's strips

5 Draw pictures or make models of medieval country folk to illustrate the clothing of the period.

CHAPTER VIII

THE HOLY CATHOLIC CHURCH

Christendom and the Holy Catholic Church.—How many of us, when in the Creed we say that we believe in "the Holy Catholic Church," realise exactly what we mean ? *Catholic* is simply a Greek word meaning "universal," and in the Middle Ages the "Catholic" Church really was the "universal" Church—at any rate in Western Europe   Until the sixteenth century there was hardly a single person in Europe who was not a Christian, and for that reason Europe was often called *Christendom*   Except in Russia and the Balkan Peninsula, every Christian belonged to the Roman Catholic Church   It is known as the "Roman" Church because the bishop of Rome was its head, and he was called the *Pope* (from a Latin word *papa,* or "father") of the whole Catholic Church

To most men (and especially Englishmen) in the Middle Ages the Pope seemed far away   But every man felt that he was a member of the Catholic Church   In each village everybody went to the village church, and most villages had their own priests.   Besides, the special occasions which the Church used to celebrate every year were holy days, and on holy days there were not only services in church but special games and rejoicings ,   in fact, each *holy day* was a *holiday*   For this reason the villagers regarded the holy days as the best days in their year, and that bound them still closer to the Catholic Church.

It was because the people of the Middle Ages thought so much of their church that they usually built their church buildings of stone. Very often

A VILLAGE HOLIDAY IN THE MIDDLE AGES
(*Norman* church tower in background)
(*Reduced from Longmans' " Historical Illustrations* ")

the church was the only stone building in the village, and for that reason medieval churches have lasted longer than most medieval buildings   In most villages in England the church is at least 500 years old, and

there are very few big towns which have not at least
one church as old as that

The Friars.—These old churches are still standing
in thousands to remind us of the religious life of the
medieval village But in the Middle Ages (as now)
some villages were too small, or too poor, to have
a church of their own And some parish priests were
too lazy or too old to look after their parishes And
so there were other sorts of clergymen in the Middle
Ages, whose work was to look after those who had
no priest of their own These extra clergymen were
called either *Friars* or *Canons*

" Friar " is simply the English form of the French
word (*frère*) for " brother " There were several
important " brotherhoods " of friars The two most
important of all were the *Franciscans* and the
Dominicans. They were called after their founders,
Saint Francis of Assisi and *Saint Dominic,* and
sometimes, from the colour of the dress they wore,
they were also called *Grey Friars* and *Black Friars*

These friars had their " friaries " (branch offices,
as we might call them) in various places in England and
elsewhere. But they did not live in them It was
the duty of every friar to go about from place to place
preaching and teaching and, like the disciples in the
New Testament, they were to have no money of their
own Instead, they were to live on what people gave
them and to obtain lodgings wherever they could
For this reason they are often called *Mendicant* (or
" begging ") *Friars*

The Canons.—Like the friars, the Canons helped
to minister to those who were without any other
priest But instead of travelling about they lived
together in large houses of their own and did their
work in their own neighbourhood In their houses,

they lived strictly according to certain fixed rules which had been laid down by Saint Augustine From this they got their name of *Augustinians*, or *Austin Canons* , in fact, " canon " is simply a Greek word, meaning " rule "

The Monks.—This strict way of living together makes the canons rather unlike the friars, and more like *monks*, who lived together in *monasteries*. But in another way the monks were quite unlike the canons The name monk means " lonely," and the monks were so called because they rarely left their monasteries or saw anyone else except the other people who lived with them There were even some monks (called *Carthusians*) each of whom lived in a cell by himself, speaking to no one, and seeing no one—sometimes not even the man who brought him his meals Carthusian monasteries were called *Charter Houses* , but they were not very common in England

We must not imagine from this that the ordinary monks were shut up in a sort of prison They were supposed to live strictly according to rule, and most of them, who obeyed the rules of Saint Benedict, were known as *Benedictines* But the monasteries were often very big buildings and very fine ones And they were surrounded by their own fields and woods, in which the monks worked during the daytime

The Monks at Work.—The monks were by no means idle They had to produce, on their own land enough food to live on, and that meant working like ordinary villagers There were usually many servants to do the roughest work, but even those monks who did not work in the fields or workshops of the monastery kept themselves busy in other ways One of the commonest ways for monks to spend their time was in copying books In those days, before printing was invented, there was only one way of spreading books,

and the knowledge in them, and that was by copying them out in writing Many of the monks were very clever at writing clearly and neatly, and at ornamenting their *manuscripts* with very fine drawings and paintings

Besides merely copying old books, many of the monks wrote new ones of their own—especially *chronicles,* which were accounts of what happened in their own time and before it We must remember that in the Middle Ages hardly anybody except clergymen could read or write That is why clergymen are still called *clerics,* or *clerks* Most of the best books, in the early part of the Middle Ages, were written by monks in their monasteries, and it is from the monastic " chronicles " that we learn very much of the history of that time

Some monasteries were quite small, with only five or six monks living in them. But many of them were fairly large, perhaps holding fifty or more monks And we must remember that other people, besides the monks, lived in the monastery—servants to look after them , a smith to make horse-shoes and ploughshares, spades and knives , and others besides. All these people had to be fed and lodged There was a dormitory for the monks and another for the servants, and there was a great dining-hall, or *refectory,* at which all the monks could sit down together

The Monks at Meal-times —One of the rules of these monasteries was that no one should talk at meals Instead, one of the monks went up into a sort of pulpit in the refectory and read aloud to his brother-monks some instructive book This will remind us why the monks were living in the monastery at all They were there to live as religious a life as they could—not by doing good to others, but by keeping themselves as free as possible from all kinds of wrong-doing They spent their spare time reading these books of learning

or devotion   And they held in the monastery church, about seven services every day.

The Monks at Worship.—The first of these services began very early in the morning, sometimes soon after midnight   For this reason you will often find in the ruins of old monasteries (and there are plenty of them in England) a staircase, passing from the side of the church up to the room which was the monks' dormitory Down this staircase the monks would rush in a sleepy hurry for the early service, and up it again they would go afterwards for another doze until the next service at daybreak, before the day's work

The Monastery Buildings—With so many services a day the church was much the most important part of every monastery   Although it had only one storey, it was always the highest part of the buildings, and so it was usually built on that side (generally the north) which most needed to be screened from winter winds These monastery churches were decorated with fine carvings and wall pictures, as well as being built in proportions which made them beautiful in themselves

Opposite the church, across a courtyard, or *garth*, was usually the refectory   Not only was the refectory itself a large hall, to seat all the inmates of the monastery , but to feed all these people, big kitchens and larders were needed as well   These, with the refectory, filled all that side of the courtyard which was opposite the church

Filling the other two sides of the square court were the dormitories , on the east, as a rule, the dormitory of the monks , on the west, that of the servants   These bedrooms, however (like most of ours), were upstairs, and beneath them were other rooms Under the servants' dormitory on the west there were cellars, cart-sheds, and stables   Under the monks'

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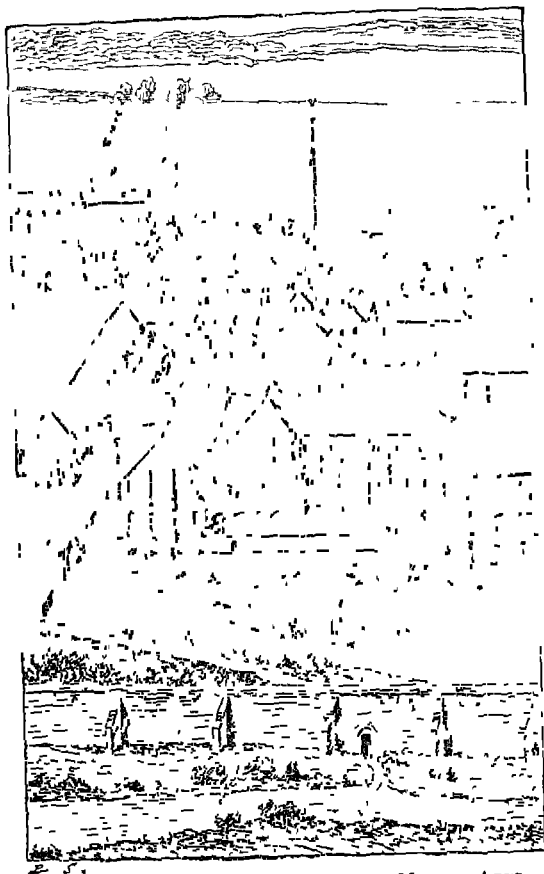
THE MONASTERY OF CITEAUX IN THE MIDDLE AGES
The Headquarters of the *Cistercian* Monks
(*From Lavisse and Parmentier's " Album Historique."*)

dormitory on the east were various storerooms, and,
much more important than these, there was the
Chapter House.

Chapter was the name given to the whole houseful of monks (it is still used to mean all the clergy who govern a cathedral)   The Chapter House was a large room where the monks used to meet to discuss and arrange all the business of the monastery.   The seats were usually all round the walls, with a special seat for the *Prior*, or *Abbot*, who ruled over the monks. Since this room was chiefly used by the most important
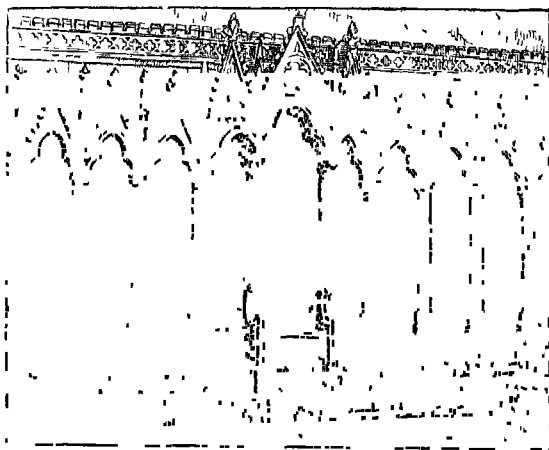
THE PRIOR'S SEAT, CHAPTER HOUSE, CANTERBURY.
(*From Tout's " A History of Great Britain "*)

of the monks, it was usually carved and decorated as finely as the church itself

Round the garth ran the *Cloisters*.   These were a covered-in walking-ground, with openings like windows to let in the light   Sometimes these cloister windows were filled with stained glass, sometimes they were left open   It was in the cloisters, especially in fine weather, that the monks did most of their study and writing of books

The monasteries were meant to do good, and so

the monks were often willing to help those who needed
it They had a special *guest-house* where travellers
could stay for several days, free of cost , there was
an *infirmary*, or hospital, where poor people of the
neighbourhood, as well as monks, could be nursed
when they were ill—and many of the monks were quite
skilful doctors Besides all this, some of the monas-
teries were very generous in giving alms to the poor.

The End of the Monasteries.—Later in the Middle
Ages, the monks became unruly and irreligious This
gave a good excuse to King Henry VIII of England,
when he needed money, to destroy the monasteries
and take their wealth All English monasteries were
abolished in that king's reign, and consequently most
remaining monasteries in this country are ruins

Cathedrals —In some cases, however, the monastery
church is still standing, even when the rest of the
monastery is ruined, because it is being used as a
Cathedral As in the Middle Ages, these cathedrals
are the chief churches in the districts into which the
whole church is divided. Each of these districts is
called a *diocese*, and is governed by a *bishop*, who is
responsible for seeing that the work and worship of
each *parish* in his diocese is properly carried on.
Every cathedral contains a bishop's throne (indeed,
cathedra is simply a Greek word for " throne ") The
priest who is in charge of the cathedral itself is called
a *dean*, and he is assisted in the cathedral services
by priests called *canons*, whose duties are in many
ways like those of the canons of the Middle Ages

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VIII

1. Questions —
    - (a) Make a list of medieval churches near your home, and
        find out the age of each
    - (b) What were the duties of the Friars and Canons ? Why
        were they needed ?

(*c*) Explain the difference between Friars and Monks

(*d*) What different sorts of Friars, Canons, and Monks were there ?

(*e*) What can you learn from such street and district names as the following ?—Blackfriars, Whitefriars, Greyfriars (London), Grey Friar Gate, Friar Lane (Nottingham), Friar Gate (Derby), etc

(*f*) Make a list of streets and districts, in any town you know, which are named after some medieval monastery or friary

(*g*) Write an account of a day in your life as though you were a friar or a canon or a monk.

(*h*) Draw diagrams to show the connection between (1) the Pope, Bishops, and Priests, (11) The Catholic Church, Dioceses, and Parishes

(*i*) What do you know about the following ?—" Catholic ", Christendom, Pope, Papacy, parish, diocese, Bishop, cathedral, abbey, abbot, prior, friar, canon, Carthusian, Charterhouse, Benedictines, Cistercians, chronicles, refectory, cloisters, garth, chapter, chapter house

2 **Source Exercise :—**

" Abbot Henry built the bell-tower, the *chapter house, cloister*, lavatory, *refectory*, and *dormitory*, also the *infirmary* with its chapel, a splendid, large palace, a wide gateway, with squared stones, a large brewhouse, and many *stables*
.   On May 25th, 1184, the whole of the monastery was burnt down   The beautiful buildings recently erected by Henry of Blois, and the Church, were reduced to a heap of ashes
The ruin of the relics and the loss of treasure (gold and silver, heavy cloth and silks, *books* and other ornaments) must grieve even those who only hear from afar about these disasters "

(*a*) This was written in the Abbey of Glastonbury by Adam of Domerham. one of the monks   Explain how he would write this chronicle, and what it would look like

(*b*) Find out as much as you can about Henry of Blois (the Abbot mentioned here, he was also Bishop of Winchester)

(*c*) Write notes on the words in italics

3 Draw a plan of any medieval church or monastery

4 Draw pictures or make models of —A monastery (showing the church and cloisters), a monastic refectory, a chapter house, a dormitory, cloisters, a monk, a friar

CHAPTER IX

WARFARE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

An Age of War and Chivalry.—The Middle Ages can fairly be called the *Age of Feudalism*, and (as we have seen in Chapter V) the most important thing about feudalism was *military tenure*. Every landholder had to be ready to defend the lands which he held—in other words, he had to keep himself trained as a soldier. It was an age when even strong kings could not keep the country properly in order. Powerful barons attacked weak barons, and plundered or stole their lands, robbers abounded everywhere. There was no police force, and the king had no standing army of his own, except what was enough to defend his own court and lands. Consequently, landholders had to depend upon themselves, rather than upon the king, for protection.

It was therefore customary for all great landholders to be trained as *knights*—that is, horse-soldiers—who were able, when necessary, to lead small armies of their own followers, or to fight as *cavalry* in the army of the king. For this reason the Middle Ages are often known as the *Age of Chivalry*, from the French word *chevalerie*, meaning "horsemanship" or "knighthood". There were plenty of private wars between the barons, so that they were kept in practice, and even in times of peace they held those sham fights, called *jousts* or *tournaments*, for which the Middle Ages were so famous.

Norman Kings and their Armies.—Under the rule
of the Norman kings (William I and his successors)
England became rather more peaceful, and many men
began to neglect to keep themselves properly trained
and equipped. Henry II therefore made it compulsory
(by a law called the *Assize of Arms*, in 1181) for every
man to have as much armour and as many weapons
as he could afford   And a hundred years later (in 1285,
when, under his good rule, the people were again
becoming slack about their own defence) Edward I
did the same thing by his *Statute of Winchester*

This statute is important, because it provided, not
only for the upkeep of a proper army, but also for
maintaining order in the country   That is, it was a
police law as well as a *military* law, because in those
days it was the ordinary people who did what is now
done by policemen and soldiers   Thus the Statute
of Winchester ordered that

> "every man between 15 years of age and 60 years shall
> be assessed and sworn to armour, according to the quantity
> of their lands and goods , that is, from lands worth £15,
> and goods worth 40 marks, a hauberk, an iron helmet, a
> sword, a knife, and a horse "—

and so on down to the man with less than forty
shillings yearly, who was to

> "keep gisarmes [a sort of dart], knives, and other less
> weapons "

The police arrangements of the Statute of Winchester
made the people themselves responsible for arresting
suspected persons , and to prevent criminals from hiding
or lying in ambush near the roads, it was ordered
that all bushes were to be cleared away for 200 feet
on each side   All town gates were to be shut from
sunset till sunrise, and watchmen were to be appointed
during the hours of darkness. Finally, if a criminal

escaped, he was to be followed from street to street, and from town to town, by the *hue and cry*—that is, by all the townsfolk who could possibly leave their work and pursue him

By 1285, however, the poorer people were not very important to the king as soldiers. Even in the twelfth century, kings had got into the way of using *mercenaries* (hired soldiers) for their armies, instead of their poorer subjects, who had no time to keep themselves in training Henry II (1154-1189) had let it become customary for his tenants to pay him money, instead of joining his army with their followers. With this money (called *scutage*, or "shield-money") he was able to hire soldiers who were much more use to him. These soldiers were fighting for wages and not to protect their own lands, and soon even knights, as well as foot soldiers, could be hired At the battle of Crecy, in 1346, armed knights received a shilling a day, while mounted archers received sixpence, and unmounted archers threepence.

Knights and their Armour.—The armed knight received most pay, because his expenses were heaviest. He had to find food for himself and his horse as well as for the *squire* who looked after the horse and armour And the armour itself was an expensive item At first, under the Norman kings, it consisted of a heavy coat and leggings of *chain-mail,* made of iron links. Later, it became heavier and more expensive still, especially in the fifteenth century, when it was made almost entirely of metal plates, and was known as *plate-armour* In the later Middle Ages the horses were armed as well, so that the cost of the whole of a knight's outfit was very great.

Medieval Battles.—This strengthening of armour in the later Middle Ages was due to changes in the methods

of fighting—chief of which was the introduction of
gunpowder in the fourteenth century   Until the
fourteenth century gunpowder was unknown, and the
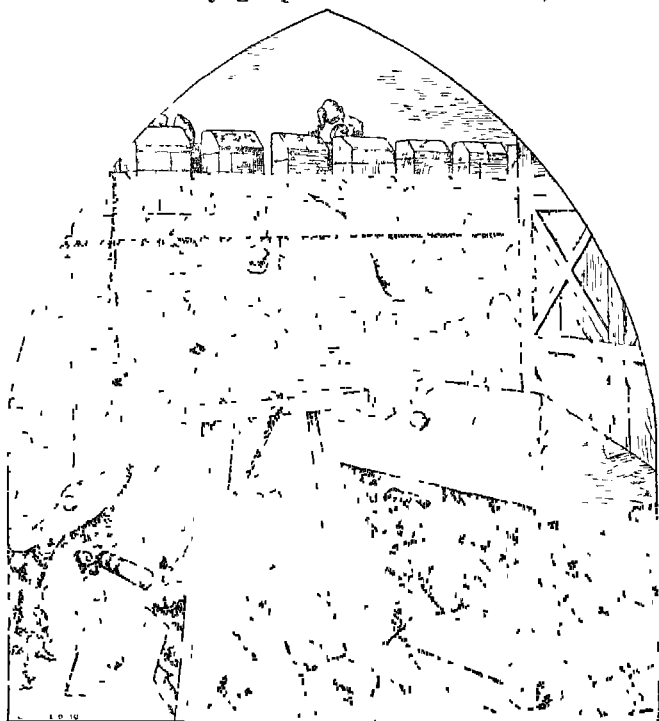
MEDIEVAL SIEGE ENGINES
(*Reduced from Longmans' " Historical Illustrations "*)

chief weapons used were the sword and axe of the
heavy-armed knights, and the bows and arrows of
the archers   In Norman times it was the knights in
armour who did most of the fighting   The bowmen
rarely did more than fire a few volleys at the beginning

3 A

of a battle, and then retired, leaving the field to the
knights   But in the fourteenth century English armies
began to fight in a different way   The longbowmen
were placed in between the different bodies of cavalry,
and were kept there all through the fight   It was the
steady fire of these longbowmen which did more than
anything else to win the day for the English at Crecy
(1346) and Poictiers (1356) in the Hundred Years' War

The very title of the " Hundred Years' War " is
enough to make us think   Wars do not take a hundred
years to settle nowadays   Even if we regard this war,
between England and France, as two or three wars
lasting thirty or fifty years each, we still wonder why
medieval wars were so long   The chief reason is that
medieval generals knew more about defence than about
attack , they found it easier to keep an enemy at
bay than to drive him from any position he took up
Landlords had castles sprinkled about their lands, and
until gunpowder was discovered castles were very hard
indeed to take.   The only artillery which could be
used against them were *siege-engines*, which threw
heavy stones, but were so slow that there was often
time to patch up the castle wall again before much
damage could be done

Castles and Sieges.—Besides, medieval castles were
built to stand long sieges   They were usually placed
on a steep hill, which made it difficult for an enemy to
attack   As a rule there was a well, which guaranteed
the supply of water , and a medieval castle was big
enough to contain food to last many months, even for
a large number of people   At the approach of the
enemy, sheep and cattle could be driven into the castle
and kept in the courtyard until the enemy withdrew,
or be slaughtered for food if the siege was a long one

As the Middle Ages went on, castles were built
more and more strongly.   In the eleventh and twelfth

centuries most of them consisted of one or more
courtyards on a hill, with a large tower, or *keep*, at
the point which was easiest to defend   This keep
was as strong as the builders could make it   Often
the walls were 10 or 15 feet thick—so thick that some-
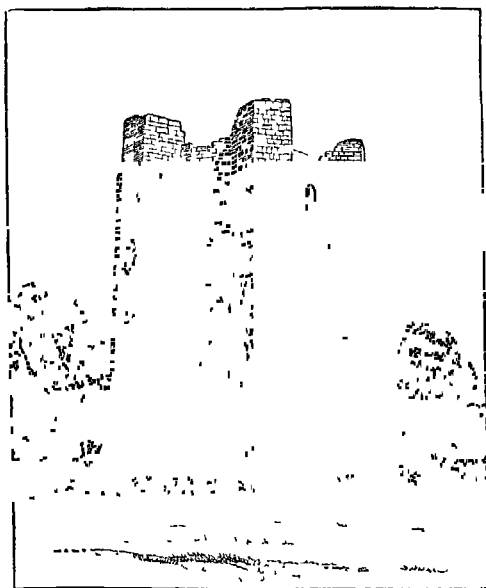
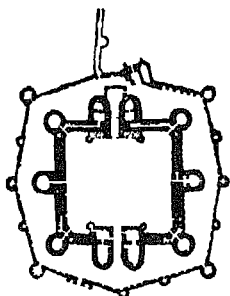RUINS OF THE KEEP, CONISBORO' CASTLE
(*From Tout's " A History of Great Britain "*)

times there were rooms *in* the walls and not merely
between them   As a rule, the only entrance to the
keep was through a door on the second storey, which
could only be reached by a ladder let down by the
people inside

The greatest change in castle building took place
in the thirteenth century.   For some time Crusaders

had been returning from the East with new ideas about fortification, and these ideas now began to be used in Europe It was Edward I. who took most part in introducing them into this country, and the best examples of the new fashion are the castles he built to keep order in Wales The chief change was that castles were built on a *concentric* plan—that is, there were two or three rings of walls, something like circles surrounding a single centre. The plan of Beaumaris Castle, which Edward I built in Anglesey, will explain the plan of the *concentric castle* better than words can do It is easy to see the advantages of this plan When the enemy had taken one ring of wall he had to begin again with the next, and this time
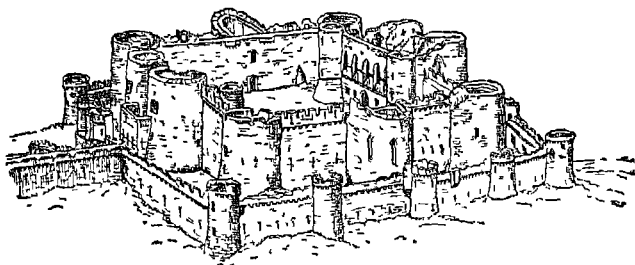

PLAN OF BEAUMARIS CASTLE
Showing the arrangement of the *concentric* defences

(*From Barnard's "Companion to English History," Clarendon Press, Oxford*)

VIEW OF BEAUMARIS CASTLE (BUILT BY EDWARD I).
Showing *concentric* defences

(*From Barnard's "Companion to English History," Clarendon Press, Oxford*)

he was fighting between two walls, in a space so narrow that it was difficult to escape from the missiles of the defenders.

Gunpowder and the Decay of Castles.—But even concentric castles could not resist gunpowder and cannon-balls Towards the end of the Middle Ages, therefore, people realised that castles were no use any longer, since the new artillery could so easily knock them down No more castles were built, and the nobles began to live in houses designed for comfort instead of in castles designed for defence (see Chapter XIII.)

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IX

1. **Questions** —

    (a) In what way were the people of the Middle Ages less civilised than ourselves, and what were the chief arrangements for keeping order among them ?

    (b) Write an account of an imaginary medieval tournament

    (c) In what different ways did medieval kings obtain soldiers for their armies ?

    (d) How did fashions in medieval armour change, and why ?

    (e) What were the chief changes in *tactics* in the Middle Ages, and what effect did these changes have on the results of any medieval battles of which you know ?

    (f) Why did many medieval wars last so long ?

    (g) Write an imaginary account of a medieval siege as though you were taking part (i) in the attack , (ii) in the defence

    (h) In what ways did castle building develop in the Middle Ages, and why ?

    (i) When was gunpowder first used in Europe, and what difference did it make to (i) battles and sieges , (ii) the castles and houses of the nobles ?

    (j) What do you know about the following ?—Knight , squire , military tenure , chivalry , Assize of Arms , Statute of Winchester , joust , hue and cry , mercenaries , scutage , chain-mail , plate-armour , keep , concentric castles

2. Source Exercise :—

> " They that at the siege lay,
>   Ere it was passèd the fifth day,
>   Made them machines of sundry sort,
>   Which 'gainst the castle walls they brought.
>   Of mighty beams a sow they made,
>   On which a stalwart roof was laid,
>   With armèd men enough therein
>   And instruments with which to mine
>   Sundry scaffolds they made withal,
>   That were much higher than the wall.
>   When this the townsfolk did espy,
>   A mighty crane they reared up high,
>   Running on wheels, that they might bring
>   It where was need of most helping
>   The engineer then bent in haste
>   His engine, and the stone fell fast,
>   And hit the sow with mighty crash,
>   And the main beam in twain did smash "

(a) This is from a long poem, written in the fourteenth century by John Barbour, about Robert Bruce. Find out as much as you can about both of them

(b) Write in your own words an account of the events described in this passage

(c) Draw pictures of the " siege-engines " mentioned in this passage, and find out their usual names

3. Draw plans of (a) any of the following battles —Hastings, Bannockburn, Crecy, Poictiers, Agincourt (mark differently the infantry and the cavalry), (b) any medieval castle (preferably one you have seen), say what kind of castle it is, and name the different parts of it

4. Draw pictures or make models of —

(a) Medieval knights, showing the armour used at different periods

(b) Medieval archers

(c) Any medieval castle (i) from outside, (ii) from inside

(d) Medieval " siege-engines," giving the name and use of each.

CHAPTER X

TOWN LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

The Town Streets.—If we wish to realise what a medieval town looked like, we must forget a great
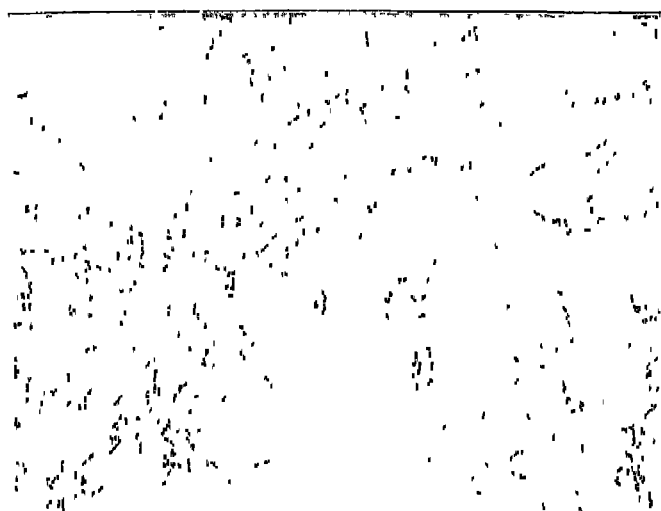
CHEAPSIDE (LONDON) ABOUT THE YEAR 1500
(For views of the same street in later times, see pages 133, 182, and 187.)
(*By permission of " The Builder " from " Old London Illustrated "*)

deal of what we know about modern towns   In the first place, the buildings were very different   Except for the church, and perhaps one or two big houses and a market-hall, everything was built of wood and plaster

For this reason medieval buildings were not so strong as ours, and hardly any of them ever had more than two storeys. Most houses had the upper storey overhanging the lower one, and in some cases the streets were so narrow that people in bedrooms on opposite sides of the street could almost touch one another

These narrow streets were one of the worst things about medieval towns   The houses were all so crowded together that the air was never as fresh as it ought to have been   Consequently, diseases spread very easily, and this was made worse by the way in which the streets were drained   There were no drains, as now, through which dirt could be washed into sewers underground.   Instead, there was one single gutter in the middle of the roadway   In wet weather the rubbish was washed downhill—and it simply collected at the bottom till somebody removed it.   In dry weather the rubbish stayed in the gutter, smelling and spreading diseases.

Since nearly all the buildings were of wood, there was another danger in medieval times—the danger of fire   Once started, a fire was very difficult to stop, especially as there were no fire engines—nothing better than buckets placed about the streets.   Sometimes whole towns were wiped out by fire, and had to be completely rebuilt again afterwards

Most towns were very small—no bigger than a large village nowadays   Often there was only one street, with a few alleys branching off it here and there   In the middle of the main street there was usually a market-place or a market-hall, to which the neighbouring villagers brought their spare produce

The Town Fields.—And we must not forget that the town itself was in the country, as we should think —quite surrounded by fields   Many of the townsfolk

would be busy in these fields during the day, tilling the ground just like villagers, and coming back to the
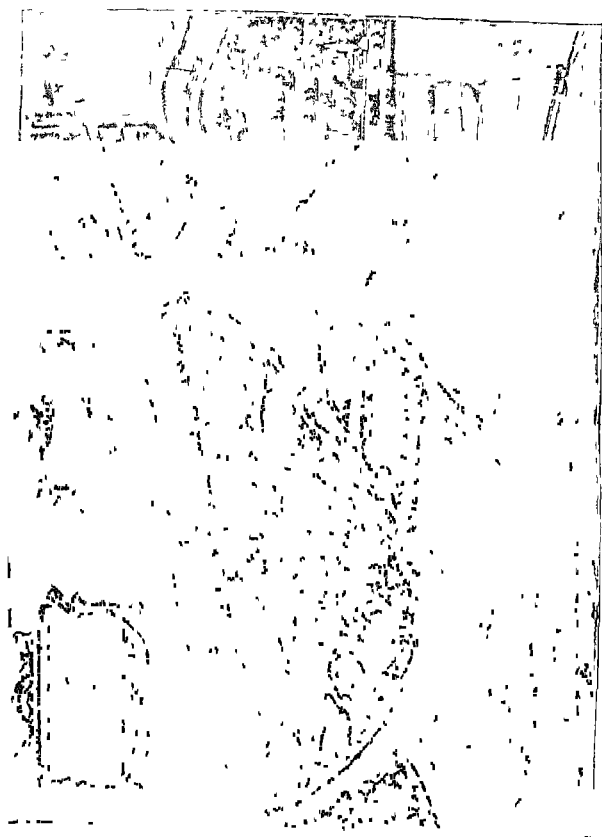
A MEDIEVAL TOWN SHOWING WALLS AND FIELDS
(From Braun and Hohenberg's "Civitates Orbis Terrarum")

town at night to sleep In one town at least (Leicester) there were fields *inside* the town walls, and on them the townsmen had strips of their own and grew corn, just as in the villages

Shops and Workshops.—In another way medieval towns were very different from the towns of to-day There were no " factories " and no tall chimneys In the Middle Ages a town was not so much a place where things were *manufactured* as a place where things were *sold* They were sold in the market , but besides that, nearly every house had a shop in front of it, because nearly every townsman had something to sell

Even the shops were different, because they were *workshops.* There were no shop windows—nothing but a sort of table with no glass in front of it, upon which the shopman showed his wares (much like a meat or fish shop nowadays). Customers had no need to go into the shop—they could just hand in their money at the shop front.

Inside the shops things were not being sold, but *made.* Nearly all the shopkeepers made the goods they sold The shoemaker sold, at the front of his shop, the shoes he made inside , the hatter made the hats he had for sale , and so on At the back of the shop was the living-room, as in many modern shops, and upstairs were the bedrooms.

Most of the shops, and even houses without shops, had a sign outside them like modern inns Very few people could read in the Middle Ages, and so it was no use having a number on the door Instead, signs were used which everybody could see and understand, and in those tiny towns, if you were sent to " the sign of the black dragon," there was not much chance of making a mistake.

The Gilds. — Now we come to a very important feature of all medieval towns This was the *gilds.* Each trade had its own gild, which was a union of all the members of that trade in the town There was a smiths' gild, a tailors' gild, a carpenters' gild, and so on, in every town And in York (which was

one of the largest towns in medieval England) there
were as many as sixty gilds

Only the masters were allowed to be gild members
In each shop there would usually be one or two
apprentices and *journeymen* (as the ordinary workmen
were called), as well as the master. The apprentice
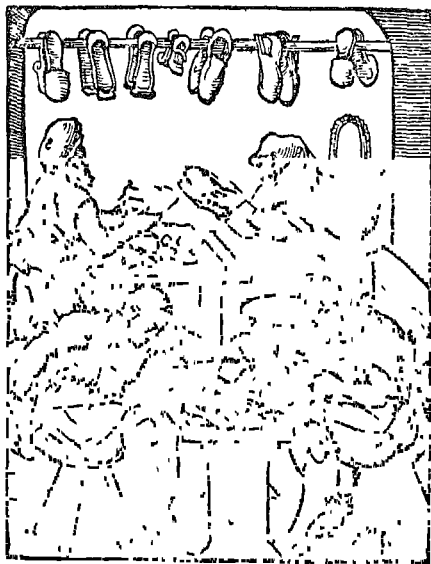
INSIDE A MEDIEVAL SHOEMAKER'S SHOP
(*From Schopper's " Panoplia "*)

had to learn the trade for seven years before he could
become a journeyman During these years and
afterwards, until he was married, he lived with his
master in the house at the back. When he had been
a journeyman for some years and had saved up enough
money, he would become a master himself. Till
then he was not allowed to join the gild.

OLD GILD HALL, MUCH WENLOCK.
Showing Market underneath.

Each gild took care that all the members of that particular trade did their work properly The weavers' gilds, for example, saw that cloth was well woven, and the proper length and breadth and quality The gilds also settled the price at which things were to be sold, and no tradesman could sell his goods either cheaper or dearer than the fixed price When a gildsman fell ill, his fellow-members gave him food and money until he was better, and if he died the gild looked after his widow and children

The Government of the Towns—Naturally the wealthiest members of the gilds were often the most important men in the town So in many cases these men became the rulers of the town—the *mayor* and *aldermen*, as they were called. When this happened the mayor and corporation would do the business of the town at the meeting-hall of the gild, and that is why in many old towns the chief building is still called the *Guildhall*

The gilds were very careful whom they admitted to membership Each gild called its own trade, or *craft*, a *mistery*, because the trade secrets were known only by those who were " masters " in that craft It regulated the buying and selling of its own sort of goods all over the town, and if a merchant brought similar goods from another town to sell, he was called a ' foreigner," and was not allowed to sell as freely as the gildsmen Each " foreigner " was made to sell his goods to another tradesman, and was not permitted to sell *retail*, and so, perhaps, take trade from the merchants of the town where he was staying In addition, he had to lodge with a gildsman, who promised to watch him and see that he kept the rules

Very often this buying and selling was regulated by the *Merchant Gild*, whose members dealt in all

sorts of goods which the townsfolk might want No town had more than one of these Merchant Gilds Later in the Middle Ages, however, there were *Craft Gilds* for the separate crafts, and there was usually one for every important trade in the town

Town Markets.—All these craftsmen and traders needed somewhere, besides their shops, where they could meet to exchange their goods For this reason, the market was always one of the most important places in the town Sometimes the market was just an open space, sometimes there was a covered-in market-hall

In any case, there were always stalls, and usually they were arranged in rows, with all the stalls in each trade kept together Thus there would be a bakers' row, a butchers' row, and so on. Many markets still have their stalls grouped together in trades, like this But in the Middle Ages the town streets also were arranged in the same way, and in many towns the streets are still named after the trade which used to have most of its shops there In London there is Bread Street, Milk Street, and the Poultry, in Edinburgh there is Candlemakers' Row Nearly all old towns have at least one street still named in this way, after a medieval trade. Perhaps the commonest of all is *Cheapside,* which means " market-side," and is still, in many towns, the name of a street near the market

On market days the town would be crowded with buyers and sellers from outside, as well as from the town itself The townspeople took great care to prevent merchants from cheating, and there was a special court where goods were tested, to see whether they were all right in weight and quality Any merchant who was found cheating was heavily fined Goods were tested in this court as soon as the merchants reached the market, however hot and tired they were

after their journey For this reason, it was called the *Court of Pie-powder*, or " Dusty-feet Court," from the French words *pieds poudrés*, meaning " dusty feet."

Fairs.—In some towns, however, the Pie-powder Court was not open on ordinary market days, but only once or twice a year, when the town had a special fair To these fairs merchants came from quite long distances, often with very expensive wares to sell. Nowadays, we think of a fair as a place where there are shows and roundabouts In the Middle Ages a fair was a serious business. People were there to buy and sell, rather than to enjoy themselves , though no doubt there were games and amusements as well Many towns are still famous for fairs which have been held every year since the Middle Ages One of the best known is Nottingham Goose Fair, which, in the Middle Ages, was really for selling geese, though there are no geese there nowadays Birmingham was noted for its onion and gingerbread fair , and the horse fair of Barnet is still one of the chief fairs in the country.

Town Walls and Gates.—Usually the fair was held outside the town walls, and there was a holiday inside the town itself, and all the shops were closed We must not forget that in those days, when fighting was much more common than it is now, all big towns were surrounded by a wall In many old towns (such as York and Chester) these walls still exist They were there to keep enemies from entering the town and stealing from the shops and houses, and for that reason the town gates were always closed from nightfall until daybreak.

There was no way of entering a town except by one of these gates We can often tell, from modern names, where these gates used to be , though sometimes " gate," in a modern name, only means " street." The seven gates

of medieval London are still remembered in the names
of streets, like Aldgate, Moorgate, and Ludgate   In
Nottingham there is a Carter Gate and a Fletcher Gate,
and from these two names we can see, not only where
the gates were, but where the cart-makers and the
fletchers (or arrow-makers) had their workshops
Usually the gates themselves are gone from these
streets which are still called after them, though at
York, Chester, Winchester, and a number of other
old towns the gateways, containing the house of the
man who collected the tolls, still remain   But even
where there are no gateways the names remind us that
life in the Middle Ages—even in towns—was not nearly
so safe as it is now

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER X

I. **Questions :—**

> (a) What are the chief differences between medieval and
> modern towns ?
>
> (b) Why were medieval towns unhealthy ?
>
> (c) Write an account of an imaginary fire in your town in the
> Middle Ages
>
> (d) Write an account of a day or week in your life as though
> you were a medieval apprentice
>
> (e) What do you know about the Gilds ?
>
> (f) What sort of houses, shops, etc , still have signs outside
> them ?
>
> (g) What do you notice about all the following names ?   What
> do they mean ?   Write down as many others like them
> as you can think of (if possible, choose names of places
> near your home) —Cheapside , Eastcheap , Chepstow ,
> Chipping
>
> (h) Explain the meaning of the following names of streets
> (uncommon names have the names of their towns after
> them in brackets) —Eastgate, Westgate, Southgate,
> Norgate, Castle Gate, Churchgate , Kirkgate, Briggate
> (Leeds) , Wheeler Gate, Bridlesmith Gate, Grey Friar
> Gate (Nottingham) , Cowgate, Canongate (Edinburgh) ,
> Deansgate (Manchester, Bolton, etc) , Bishopsgate,
> Newgate (London) , Gallowgate (Glasgow and Newcastle) ,

Gallowtree Gate (Leicester), Foregate (Chester and Worcester), Fargate (Sheffield)

(s) What do you know about the following?—Apprentices; journeymen, mayor, alderman, guildhall, mistery, pie-powder, craft

2. Source Exercise :—

" First, it is agreed and ordained that two *masters* of the *mistery* shall be elected each year, by all the masters of the *craft* in Bristol, and their names be presented to the *Mayor* of Bristol in the court of the *Guildhall*, there to swear on the Holy Gospels, within a fortnight of Michaelmas at the latest, to survey well and loyally all faults found in the said craft, whether they be committed by the masters or by the *journeymen* of the craft

" Also that no *apprentice* of the said mistery be henceforth accepted in Bristol to exercise the said mistery, until the masters shall bear witness before the Mayor that they are skilful and well taught in sewing and cutting, as they should be in this mistery." (*The Little Red Book of Bristol,* Vol. II, page 101)

(a) What can we learn from this passage about (i) Gild meetings, (ii) the connection between the gilds and their towns, (iii) the way in which the gilds regulated their trade, (iv) the training of craftsmen?

(b) Write notes on the words in italics.

3. Make a list of as many old schools as you can find, which are still called by the name of the gild to which they used to belong.

4 Draw a map of your town as it was, or might have been, in the Middle Ages

5 Draw pictures or make models of —A medieval street, medieval house-signs, a medieval shop, a guildhall, medieval townsfolk, illustrating the clothing of the period.

CHAPTER XI

TRAVEL AND TRADE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

The Difficulty and Danger of Travelling.—Most medieval people were stay-at-homes—they had good reason to be   In the Middle Ages there were very few things to tempt people to leave their homes   Travelling was difficult , not many roads were fit for carts, and, in any case, only the wealthiest people could afford to have carts   Most travelling was done on horseback, and very few were bold enough to ride out alone.   The roads were infested with robbers and outlaws, who often worked in gangs, and so most travellers kept together in bands, to defend themselves better against attacks   It was the same at sea   Pirates were thick along every coast, and thickest of all, perhaps, in the narrow seas between England and France   Consequently, ships were as anxious to sail in fleets as land travellers were to journey in companies

Besides this, there were very few who even wished to travel   The people of the Middle Ages were not very curious about distant places   Travellers' tales were as welcome then as now ;   but medieval folks cared little whether these tales were true or false   One of the most famous English travellers in those days was *Sir John Mandeville*, who wrote a book describing his journeys in the East   But we know now (though the men of Mandeville's day did not) that nearly all his book was copied from the accounts of

other travellers, and it seems probable that Sir John himself was never in the East at all

Travellers' Tales.—There is a good example, in "Mandeville's Travels," of the sort of thing people in the Middle Ages were willing to believe about foreign lands   Mandeville is trying to describe the cotton-plant, with its wool-like seeds , only he gets it so badly mixed that instead of saying that in the East " wool " grows on plants instead of on sheep, he says that

> " there groweth a kind of fruit , and when they be ripe, men cut them in two, and find inside a little beast, in flesh, blood, and bone like a little lamb, without wool And men eat both the fruit and the beast , and that is a great marvel.   Of that fruit I have eaten "

People who would believe that sort of thing could not have known many travellers , and people, like Mandeville, who could write so untruthfully, must have known that there was hardly anyone who dare contradict them

Besides being uninterested in other countries and districts, medieval people knew that there was nothing to gain by changing their abode   Villages and villeins were much alike everywhere   Work was the same, duties were the same, wages and rents were the same The lords of many manors were glad enough to travel, as we have seen , but even that was to get food, more than for the pleasure of travelling

Merchants and Staples.—Still, we have read in the last chapter of merchants and masters and fairs , and much of the merchandise had to be brought from elsewhere   Consequently, merchants were compelled to travel from town to town—whether they were *packmen* with one horse loaded with their goods, or richer traders travelling with their own servants—or even

such merchant princes as *William Canynges* of Bristol, who owned about a dozen trading-ships of his own

As we have seen, these merchants preferred to keep together on their journeys, and for this reason they often made for the same towns, since it did not much matter where their goods were sold, so long as they sold them somewhere Thus, towns which were conveniently situated on a river, or a good road, became important market-centres—or *staples*, as they were called, that is, "fixed" towns where people knew that goods could be bought or sold

These *staple towns* were dotted all over Europe Perhaps the biggest of all was Constantinople, where merchants from the East met the merchants of Europe, and where western and oriental goods were exchanged for one another If we were to follow, let us say, a bale of Persian cloth in its journey to Europe, we should see it carried by camels across the desert to Palestine, and then either by land through Asia Minor, or by sea, to Constantinople. There it would be exchanged for western wares, which the camels might carry back again to Persia Meanwhile, European merchants would carry the Persian cloth, probably up the Danube, through Vienna into the heart of Germany, and then down the Rhine towards the countries of the north

One of the most northerly countries of all was England, and foreign goods took longer to reach here than almost anywhere else The chief staple-town in northern Europe was *Bruges*, and it was through Bruges that eastern wares usually came to England

But the Flemish merchants who brought them were not willing to take back their ships empty In fact, they could hardly do so, since most trade in the Middle Ages was *barter* (that is, exchanging goods for one another), and money was not used nearly so much

as it is now   There was one English commodity
which the Flemish merchants were always willing to
receive—the wool of English sheep, which was the
best to be had in Europe

The King's Customs and the English Staples.—In
the later Middle Ages the English wool trade became
really important—so important, that the taxes (or
customs duties) on it formed a large part of the revenue
of the English kings   Consequently, our kings always
tried to make as much as they could out of these
customs, though the merchants often tried to avoid
paying them   So certain *towns* were fixed as the
only ones from which wool was to be exported, in order
that the king might collect his customs more easily.
Bristol, Norwich, York, Lincoln, Newcastle, and other
towns, were made staples at different times   But after
the capture of Calais by Edward III , in the Hundred
Years' War with France, that was chosen as the staple
town, through which merchants had to take all the
wool (the *staple commodity* of England) which they
wished to sell abroad

At first, England could only export raw materials,
such as tin, skins for making into leather, and, above
all, wool.   The merchants who dealt in these com-
modities were known as *Merchants of the Staple*, and
they had a society of their own, governed by a Mayor,
which regulated the trade of these exporting merchants,
much as the gilds regulated the trade of the merchants
at home   Later, when England began to export cloth
and other manufactures, this trade was carried on
by the *Merchant Adventurers*, who also had a society
of their own—and whose very name reminds us that
all trade was risky in the Middle Ages

Trade Routes.—Most of the trading of the English
merchants was done in the ports of Flanders, France,

and Spain   There was a ship's captain among Chaucer's pilgrims, and he knew all the ports

"From Gothland to the Cape of Finisterre ",

but we are not told that he went much into the Mediterranean Sea   Yet in the Middle Ages the

MEDIEVAL PEDLARS
(*From Schopper's " Panoplia "*)

Mediterranean really was what its name means— " the middle of the earth "   It was the centre of the trade of Europe, filled with the merchant ships of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa in Italy, and of other ports further east, and England was only on the outer rim of European commerce

Pilgrims.—Chaucer himself had travelled more than most men, and as he was a collector of customs for Edward III., he saw a good deal of the merchants and seamen who came to the Port of London. But Chaucer is most famous for teaching us that there were other travellers, in the Middle Ages, besides lords and merchants. The merchants travelled for business, many men travelled for religion. In many a company of travellers could be seen monks and abbots, messengers from the Pope—called *pardoners* because they were selling what were supposed to be pardons for sins—and many others on Church business. These people were "clerks," not only because they were "clerics" or churchmen, but because they could read and write in Latin—and Latin was a universal language which could be used in all European countries in the Middle Ages.

Most of the pilgrims in Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales," however, were not clerics, but laymen, who were visiting the shrine of Saint Thomas at Canterbury, some for pleasure, some for the good of their souls. Pilgrims were common on all the roads of Europe, travelling in bands, like everybody else, and if many roads met at the staple towns, many others met at the shrines of famous saints — at Canterbury in England, at Cologne in Germany, at the shrine of Saint James at Santiago in Spain, and, above all, at Rome, the headquarters of the Catholic Church. "All roads," said a favourite medieval proverb, "lead to Rome."

The Crusades.—As the Middle Ages wore on travelling became more common, and so people came to know more of the outside world. The Crusades (which were really great armed pilgrimages to Palestine) had brought new ideas into Europe—about building and trade and furniture and clothes, and even the figures

we use were copied by Crusaders from the Arabs
Other pilgrimages, and the dealings of English with
foreign merchants, spread about other ideas still, and
by the end of the fourteenth century people were
much more interested in foreign countries and new
ideas than they had ever been before This new
interest in things began a great change, which brought
the Middle Ages to an end, and about which we shall
read in a later chapter

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XI

1. Find out as much as you can about the following, and then
   write short notes on them —Sir John Mandeville , William
   Canynges of Bristol, Chaucer

2. Questions :—
   (a) Why did people travel so little in the Middle Ages ?
   (b) Write an account of a medieval journey as though you
       were (i) a wealthy merchant , (ii) a packman , (iii) a
       pardoner , (iv) a pilgrim
   (c) What was the use of staples ? In what places were they
       most likely to be fixed ?
   (d) What were the chief staples in Europe ? Can you explain
       why each one became important ?
   (e) What were the chief *exports* of England in the Middle
       Ages ? Where did they go to, and why ?
   (f) What were the chief *imports* of England in the Middle
       Ages ? Where did they come from, and why ?
   (g) Write an account of an imaginary day in the life of Chaucer
   (h) What were the chief trading companies in Medieval
       England ?
   (i) In what ways was travel in the Middle Ages (i) harder than
       now , (ii) easier than now ?
   (j) What were the chief places visited by pilgrims (i) in England ;
       (ii) on the continent of Europe ?
   (k) What effects did the Crusades have on the daily lives of
       people in the Middle Ages ?
   (l) What do you know about the following ?—Packmen ,
       staple town , staple commodity , Merchants of the
       Staple ; Merchant Adventurers , barter , customs
       pardoners.

3 Source Exercises —

(1) " A merchant was there, with a forked beard,
In motley coat, and high on horse he sat,
Upon his head a *Flemish* beaver hat
His boots were strongly clasped, and tidily.
His arguments he spake full solemnly,
Sounding always the increase of his winnings
He wished the sea left clear, above all things,
Betwixt the *Orwell* mouth and *Middleburg* "

(11) " The morrow came, and forth this merchant rideth
To *Flanders* , his *apprentice* well him guideth,
Till he came into *Bruges* merrily "

These passages are from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* , the first is about an English merchant , the second refers to a French merchant who lived just outside Paris

(a) What can you learn about the English merchant and his trade (1) from his clothes , (11) from the harbours mentioned ?

(b) What sort of goods would the English merchant buy and sell ?

(c) What do we learn from the first passage about medieval sea voyages ?

(d) What was the English merchant doing when Chaucer met him, and what was his purpose ?   Where else might Chaucer have met him ?

(e) Why was Chaucer particularly interested in merchants ?

(f) Mark on a map the route by which the French merchant would go to Bruges and back   Write an account of his journey

(g) Write notes on the words in italics

4. Draw maps of —

(a) England, showing the chief roads and market towns in the Middle Ages

(b) London and Kent, showing the route followed by the Canterbury pilgrims, and the chief places through which they passed

(c) Europe, showing the chief rivers, trading routes, staples, and shrines which attracted pilgrims

5 Draw pictures or make models of —A medieval merchant , pilgrim , pardoner , or any other traveller

4

CHAPTER XII

The End of the Manorial System and the Rise of the Woollen Industry

I—The End of the Manorial System

Decay of Feudalism—We know that Feudalism and the Manorial System (which is really a part of Feudalism) came into existence in the Dark Ages, because there was no better way of arranging village life in those dangerous times (see Chapter IV) But by the fourteenth century the times were not nearly so dangerous Kings could now keep their counties in fairly good order, so that even trade (which cannot prosper in unruly times) was beginning to flourish And so there was less need than before for Feudalism and the Manorial System.

We have seen (in Chapter IX) how Military Tenure (the most important part of Feudalism) was altered by Henry II and his scutage Scutage was a payment in money to the king, and it took the place of the former payment by service The king's tenants were beginning to pay him money, instead of paying him by fighting In the fourteenth century a similar change began to take place between the ordinary Lords of Manors and their tenants Instead of paying for their lands by working for the lord, or by giving him part of their produce, some tenants were beginning to pay the lord money rents This exchange of payment *in kind* for payment in money was called *commutation*, from a Latin word meaning " exchange."

The Black Death and Its Results —There is no telling how long it would have taken for this change to spread all over England, if it had not been hastened by a great disaster This was the *Black Death*—a fearful plague which visited Europe from time to time, and which, in the years 1349 and 1350, killed about half the people of England Naturally, it was the peasants who suffered most, because they could not escape the plague by going to another village, as the lords could who owned several manors apiece Consequently, when the Black Death abated, the lords found themselves with far too few peasants to till their demesnes for them Harvests rotted in the fields because there were not enough reapers, and the lords became very anxious to get fresh labourers to take the place of those who had died.

The labourers were only too glad to take advantage of this Those who had already *commuted* their feudal services for a fixed sum of money, went on paying the money to their old lord, but very often they went to work for a new lord elsewhere, who would offer them high wages Thus, as they were paying to their old lord the old rent, which was fairly low, and receiving high wages from their new lord, they were much better off than before

This made the other labourers, who had not yet commuted their services, anxious to do so, in order that they, too, might go elsewhere and earn higher money At first the lords tried to prevent this, and in 1349 a *Statute of Labourers* was passed, forbidding labourers to take, and lords to offer, wages any higher than was customary before the plague. But, of course, this law could not be properly carried out The labourers were so anxious for higher wages, that they ran away to other lords, and the lords were so anxious for labourers, that they encouraged them by offering better pay

Still, there were not enough labourers to go round, and many lords gradually found a better way of dealing with their lands Instead of growing corn, they turned their lands into *pasture,* on which they reared sheep As it takes far fewer men to look after a large sheep farm than to grow corn on the same amount of land, the lords could now manage with a much smaller number of labourers Consequently, they stopped offering high wages, and before long the labourers were much worse off than they had been before Many of them were unemployed, and even those who obtained employment as shepherds were very badly paid.

The Peasants' Revolt, 1381.—Things became so bad that the peasants of Kent rose in revolt, under the leadership of *Wat Tyler.* This *Peasants' Revolt* took place in 1381, because at that time King Richard II. had annoyed them by a *poll tax* of a shilling from every person in the kingdom, rich or poor, and, of course, this was much too hard on the poorer classes, who at that time could only earn about a shilling a week But the revolt would have come sooner or later, anyway The labourers demanded that there should be no more villeins, and that every man should be a free landowner instead, and that rents should be reduced to fourpence an acre Richard II promised them that their demands should be considered , but it was not really possible to do as the peasants wished, since the lords could not be forced to take low rents now, any more than the peasants could be forced to take low wages after the Black Death

Enclosures —So hardship among the peasants continued, and it was made worse by the way in which the lords carried on their sheep-farming. Of course, sheep could not be kept in the old *open fields,* divided

as they were into acre strips which were scattered
about anyhow   The fields had to be enclosed by
fences and hedges, and so they had to be shared out
on a new plan   Instead of strips scattered about the
two or three fields, each landowner now began to
have his land all in one piece, so that it could be fenced
in for sheep   During the fifteenth and sixteenth
centuries nearly half the arable land in England was
fenced in by *enclosures* in this way—mostly in the
counties around London

When the lord merely enclosed his own demesne
not much harm was done   But not many of the lords
were quite fair, and they often enclosed some of their
tenants' lands as well, so that the peasants no longer
had land which would produce enough corn to keep
them   This was made worse when the lord enclosed
part of the waste land, which was really the common
property of the villagers   When this was done the
peasants had too little land for pasturing their own
cattle, sheep, and pigs, or for cutting fuel and thatch
for their cottages, and so they were worse off than ever.
This is what a sixteenth-century poet meant when he
wrote —

> " Sheep have eat up our meadows and our downs,
>   Our corn, our wood, whole villages, and towns."

II —THE RISE OF THE WOOLLEN INDUSTRY

This *enclosure movement* in the fifteenth and six-
teenth centuries caused great sufferings, and preachers,
as well as poets and the peasants themselves, often
complained about it   But at the same time another
change was taking place, which made the hardship
less than it might have been   This was the rise of
the woollen manufacture in England.

Fresh Employment for the Peasants.—The peasants whose land was enclosed would have been starved if they had not been able to find another sort of employment   But in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries they found that they could make extra money by spinning or weaving wool, either in their spare time at home, or by going to live in the towns Towns were growing at this time (especially in the south and east, where the enclosure movement was worst), because woollen cloth was now being made in England instead of abroad.   In the early Middle Ages, England had obtained most of her woollens from Flanders, and Flanders had obtained raw wool from England.   But in the fourteenth century English weavers began to make their own wool, and so employment was provided for the country people in the time of their greatest hardship

We must not imagine, however, that weaving was done in factories or mills, as it is now   A few wealthy men tried to have factories of their own, and there was a certain John Winchcombe, of Newbury, in Gloucestershire (" Jack o' Newbury " he was called), who had over a hundred looms in one building   But a stop was put to this sort of thing by the *Weavers Act* in 1555, which forbade weavers to have more than two looms, and two apprentices, at once   Even in the towns the weavers would usually have only one loom, which they kept and worked in their own home   In the country cottages too, there would be just a single loom, or perhaps only a spinning wheel or two , and the peasants added to their earnings by weaving or spinning at home   It was in this way that the unmarried daughters of the house, who would do most of the spinning, came to be called *spinsters*.

The Domestic System —All these people would work for a *middleman*.   The middleman bought the

raw wool from the sheep-farmers and took it to one man to be carded When he had paid the carder he took it to a spinner, and then to a weaver, paying the men for the work, and then himself selling the cloth when it was finished In this way all the work on the cloth was done in various homes, and this system of manufacture, which lasted in England until the eighteenth century, is always known as the *Domestic System*

It was the Domestic System which eased the peasants of the hardships which threatened them at the end of the Middle Ages Under the Manorial System they had eked out the livelihood they gained from their strips of land, by their extra rights of cutting turf, fuel, and building-wood, of pasturing their cattle and feeding their pigs in the woods, and so on The end of the Manorial System took these extra rights from them, and many of them were threatened with starvation But before long, these lost advantages were replaced by their earnings under the Domestic System of woollen manufacture Besides, although much land was enclosed by lords in the south-east of England, enclosures were not nearly so common elsewhere Even in 1600 more than half of the arable land of this country was still arranged in open fields, and it remained so until the eighteenth century (see Chapter XX)

Consequently, there was much less poverty at the end of the sixteenth century than there had been at the beginning *Vagabonds* (or unemployed tramps) were less common, poor people were better looked after by their own parishes—especially after the passing of the great *Poor Law of* 1601, of which we shall read in a later chapter (pages 191-192) In fact, many people believe that in the seventeenth century the peasants and working classes generally were as well off as they have ever been

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XII

1 Make a time chart to illustrate the End of the Manorial System
and the Rise of the Woollen Industry.

2 Questions :—

  (a) " There was less need than before for Feudalism and the
      Manorial System " (page 98)   Explain why this is true

  (b) What signs were there, in the later Middle Ages, that money
      was becoming more common ?

  (c) What were the chief results of the Black Death ?

  (d) In what ways did the peasants gain, and in what ways did
      they lose, by the changes which took place in the fourteenth
      century ?

  (e) For what reasons did sheep-farming become more common
      in the later Middle Ages ?

  (f) Write an account of the Peasants' Revolt as though you
      were one of the peasants

  (g) What good, and what harm, was done by the Enclosure
      Movement ?

  (h) What was the connection between the End of the Manorial
      System and the Rise of the Woollen Industry ?

  (i) What do you know about (i) the Wool Trade , (ii) Woollen
      Manufacture, in the Middle Ages ?

  (j) What do you know about the following ?—Military tenure ,
      scutage , payment in kind , commutation , Statute of
      Labourers , enclosures , poll tax , Wat Tyler , Jack o'
      Newbury ,   Weavers   Act ,   spinsters ,   middlemen ,
      Domestic System , vagabonds.

3 Source Exercise :—

      " Because a great part of the people (especially workmen
  and servants) died lately in the plague, many of them, seeing
  the need of the masters and the great scarcity of servants, will
  not work without excessive wages , and others prefer to beg
  rather than work for their living , therefore, considering what
  grave inconvenience may come from the lack of labourers,
  we have ordained —

      ' That every man and woman of our realm of England,
  under the age of sixty, shall be bound to serve any master
  who offers suitable work, and to receive only the wages which
  were customary, in his district, in the twentieth year of our
  reign, or for five or six years before , provided that lords shall

have the choice, before others, of employing their own tenants —but not more than necessary   And if any man or woman refuse, he shall be taken to the nearest prison

' Also, if any reaper, mower, or other workman, runs away from his service without good reason, he shall be imprisoned

' Also, if any man shall pay, or promise to pay, any workman any more wages than used to be customary, he shall be fined double the amount

' Also, that Butchers, Fishmongers, Innkeepers, Brewers, Bakers, etc , shall sell their food at a reasonable price, taking moderate and not excessive profit, and if anyone sell food in any other way, he shall pay double the sum charged ' " (*Statutes of the Realm*, Vol I , pages 307-8)

(a) From what law do you suppose this passage is taken ? When was it passed, and why ?

(b) Why was it " especially workmen and servants " who " died lately in the plague " ?

(c) With what different sorts of people does this law deal, and what does it say about each of them ?

(d) " Considering what grave inconvenience may come from the lack of labourers " What does the law mean by this ?

(e) Why was " the twentieth year of our reign " chosen as a suitable date from which to reduce wages, etc ? Whose reign was it, and what was the date of its " twentieth year " ?

4 Draw maps of England, showing (a) districts in which most enclosures took place , (b) the chief woollen manufacturing districts (i) in 1500 , (ii) now

5 Make a plan of a real or imaginary medieval village (a) under the three-field system , (b) after enclosures had taken place.

CHAPTER XIII

BUILDING IN THE MIDDLE AGES

ONE of the best things we can do if we wish to understand the history of any people, is to study the sort of buildings they have liked to build from time to time We have already learnt something of the buildings of the ancient Britons—they were content, as a rule, with very rough huts, which shows that they had little idea of comfort as we know it We have seen, too, how the Romans improved building in this country, and from the way in which they covered the land with farms, houses, baths, and temples made of stone or brick, we can realise how highly civilised the Romans were.

Saxon Buildings.—We have learnt also (Chapter II) that civilisation decayed after the fall of the Roman Empire, and with the civilisation good building decayed too   The Anglo-Saxons were rougher altogether than the Romans—rougher even than the Britons had been under Roman rule—and consequently their buildings were far inferior to those of the Romans   Most of their houses were made of wood, which soon decays or catches fire, and so there are none of these Saxon houses left to show us exactly what they were like

Some Saxon buildings, however, were made of stone, especially their most important churches   In the Middle Ages daily worship appeared more important to the people than ever before or since, and so they

paid more attention to their churches than to any other of their buildings For that reason there are few towns or villages in the country to-day which do not contain at least one medieval church

On page 22 there is a picture of the stone tower of Earl's Barton church, which was built in Saxon times   The first thing to notice about it is that it looks almost as though it might be made of wood , the projecting lines of stone have the appearance of a wooden framework. Even the little pillars between the windows at the top of the tower look like carved wood   The Saxons were so used to building in wood that even in their stone buildings they used decorations like these, which are more suitable for wood than for stone.

Another feature of Saxon building is the shape of their windows   They are always very narrow outside and much wider inside , so that from the inside of the building they seem like long, narrowing tunnels, the walls are so thick   Finally, Saxon windows and doorways are nearly always round-headed, except where the top of the opening consists of a single flat stone, which makes the window look square

Norman Buildings.—When the Normans came to England in the reign of Edward the Confessor, and after the Norman Conquest, they introduced a much finer style of building, which was fashionable on the Continent   At first, Norman architecture was very much like that of the Saxons, except that by now (about 1000 A.D) the builders were used to stone and knew how to avoid patterns which were more suitable for wood   Gradually the Normans improved their building methods, until they learned how to make quite wide arches of stone, so that their doors were wider and their windows let in more light   Besides this, they began to decorate their buildings in various

NORMAN ARCHITECTURE AT DURHAM CATHEDRAL.
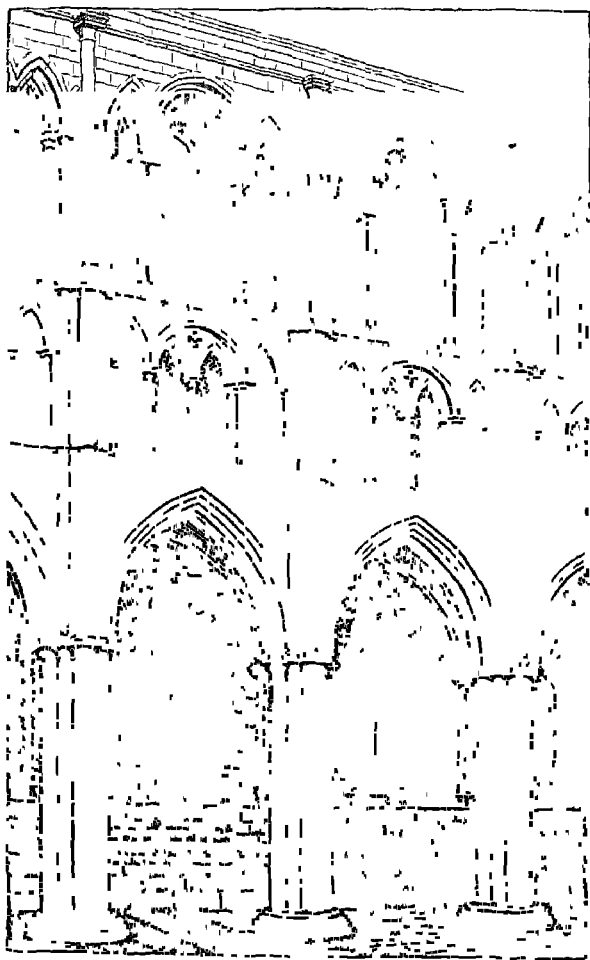(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England "*)

ways, which made them look much finer than any Saxon buildings had done

One of the finest Norman churches in England is Durham Cathedral, part of which is shown on page 108 Arches were still round-headed in Norman times but they were much wider, and the pillars between them were straight cylinders instead of being carved like wood Moreover, the Normans knew how to improve the appearance of their building by grouping arches together in sets In the middle storey (or *triforium*) in the illustration, two small arches have been set underneath one big one, and in the storey above (which is called the *clear-storey* because it lets in light) two small arches placed beside one big one make the whole window look much finer

You will notice all over this picture (on the central pillar and round nearly all the arches) a peculiar *zigzag* pattern This was the favourite ornament used by the Norman builders, and is one of the easiest marks by which to tell a building of the eleventh or twelfth centuries Another sign of Norman work is the cushion-shaped tops of many of the pillars—*cushion-capitals*, as they are called

Gothic Architecture —At the end of the twelfth century a very great change began to take place Hitherto, all arches had been round, from now onwards, until the end of the Middle Ages, all arches were pointed, and this building with pointed arches is known as *Gothic* architecture

The change came gradually, as we can see from the picture of Ripon Cathedral on page 110 In this part of the church the general pattern is much the same as at Durham, but in the clear-storey the little side arches are sharply pointed although the middle one is round, in the triforium, two pointed arches are set beneath a round one, and in the bottom

TRANSITIONAL ARCHITECTURE, RIPON CATHEDRAL
(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England* ")

row (or *arcade*) the arches are all pointed, although the windows behind them are round and *splayed* (or ' tapering ") like the old Saxon windows,

The Early English Style.—Thus in this building we see a *transition* (or " passing ") from one style to another. Consequently, this half-Norman, half-Gothic style is often called *transitional*. Before long, all arches were pointed, and this earliest style of Gothic architecture is called *Early English*. In pure Early English building the windows are long and sharply-pointed, so that they are called *lancets*. Besides this, the pillars are often divided into separate *shafts*, as at Ripon. The *capital* is bell-shaped, and sometimes around the bell there is very beautiful carving. Another sure mark of Early English work is what is called *trough-moulding* at the base of a pillar or a wall. If, round the base, the stone is carved into a little channel or trough which would hold water, it was almost certainly built in the Early English period (about 1170 to 1270)

Before long builders began arranging their windows as they had already arranged their triforium arches— that is, clustering two lancets together under another larger arch   At Durham (page 108) this leaves too much blank wall between the little arches and the big one, and at Ripon we can see that the builder has improved the appearance by carving a little opening in the bare space   In the doorway of York Minster (page 112) this design is carried a little further   There are still two arches under one big one, but the small opening has grown into a large circle of stone, with six openings in it, and each of these openings consists of three smaller circles arranged in a regular pattern

The Decorated Style.—Ornamental doorways and windows like this are called *Decorated*, and *Geometrical*
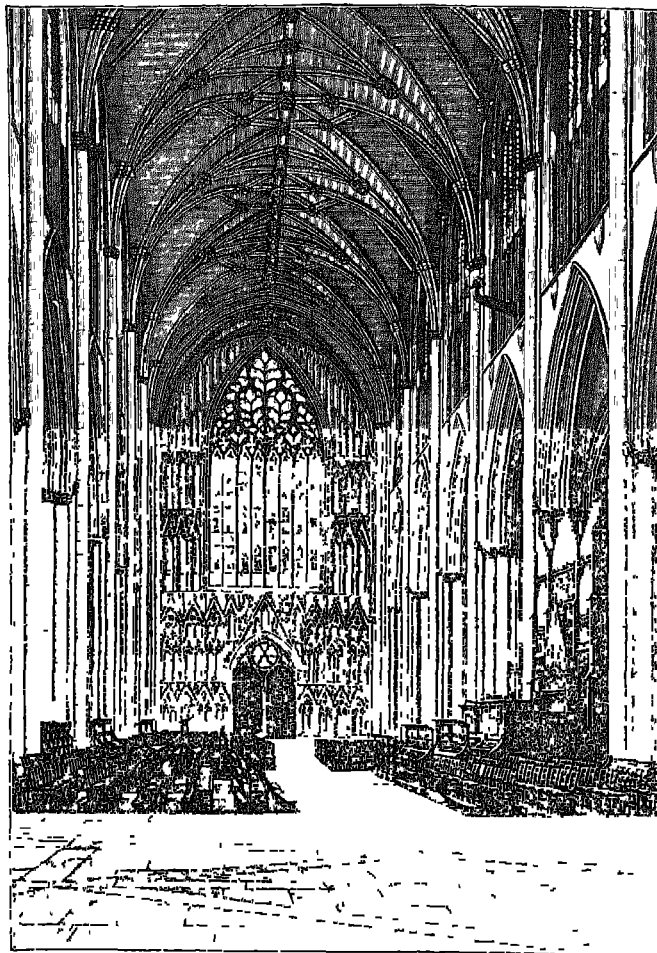
YORK MINSTER

Showing pillars and arches of the *Early English* period, doorway of the
Geometrical Decorated and window of the *Flowing Decorated* periods

(*From Gardiner's " A Student s History of England "*)

Decorated Gothic architecture (called "geometrical" because everything is carved into a circle or part of a circle) was fashionable in the second half of the thirteenth century. But it was not long before these circular patterns became more and more interwoven, until such beautiful windows as the large one at York could be built This type is known as *Flowing Decorated*, because the lines of stone seem to flow in all directions The fourteenth century was the great age of flowing decorated building, and churches of that period are usually full of delightful carving—not only in their windows, but on the pillars and seats as well

The Perpendicular Style.—All this time windows were being made larger and larger, and so the churches were becoming lighter and lighter Then again a change took place Towards the end of the fourteenth century the decorated style went out of fashion and was replaced by the *Perpendicular* style The picture of King's College Chapel at Cambridge (page 114) will explain why it was called perpendicular Nearly all the lines of stone on the walls and in the windows of this building seem to be upright Straight lines have taken the place of the beautiful curves of the flowing style and these straight lines even reach to the tops of the windows

This was the favourite style of the fifteenth century. At first it was much plainer and stiffer than the decorated style. Some people think that it came in because, after the Black Death, men thought they ought to be stricter, not only in their lives, but also in the way they built their churches Others say that it was introduced simply because the plumbers were tired of fitting glass to the curved frames of decorated windows, and insisted that the builders should make their windows easier to fit.
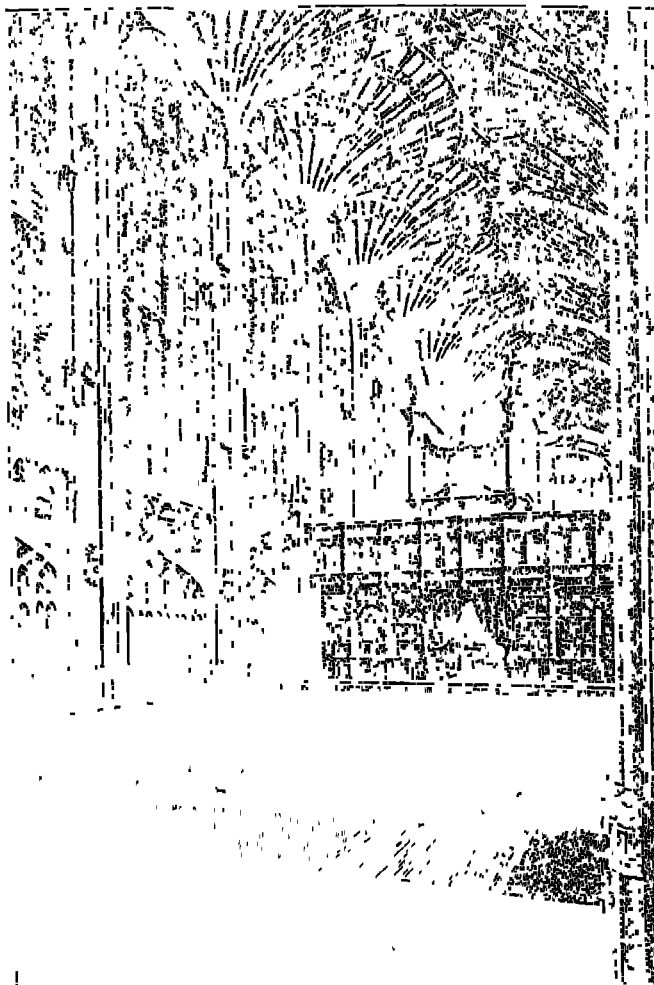
PERPENDICULAR ARCHITECTURE (KING'S COLLEGE CHAPEL, CAMBRIDGE)

(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England.*")

However plain the perpendicular style was at first, it soon became as beautiful as the earlier styles, and King's College Chapel is among the finest buildings in the country. It was not built until the reign of Henry VII (about the year 1500), and by that time Perpendicular architecture was fully developed. One of its chief beauties was *fan-vaulting* for its roofs, and the picture gives a splendid example of this, there are other famous specimens in Westminster Abbey, Peterborough Cathedral, and Saint George's Chapel in Windsor Castle A fan-vaulted roof is a huge pattern of interlacing lines in stone, and the weight of it is carried down these lines to the side-shafts and so to the ground.

Gothic Houses—All our illustrations of Gothic architecture have, so far, been taken from churches, but other stone buildings were erected in the same way On page 45 is a picture of an ordinary manor house built in Gothic and not unlike a church But in the Middle Ages most buildings, except castles and churches (and even many of the latter), were of wood, or at best of *half-timber*, like that shown on page 84 In this style of building an oak framework was erected and then filled in with plaster or bricks—though bricks did not come into use until the fifteenth century. When a half-timbered building was finished, the oak framework was painted black and the rest white, so that it looked very pretty But it was always liable to catch fire, and the timber and half-timber houses of medieval towns were often the cause of very disastrous fires

Country Houses in the Later Middle Ages.—At first all great country houses, whether built like churches or not, were fortified like castles, with turrets for watching the enemy, a great hall something like a

keep, and a moat if there was enough water   Later in the Middle Ages, however, when there was less danger of private warfare, these houses were planned for comfort and beauty instead of for defence   The parts of Hampton Court Palace which were built by Cardinal Wolsey are a fine example of a great house of the sixteenth century, with its wide gateways and spacious courtyards and hall and chapel , and although there was a moat, it was probably more for beauty than for keeping out an enemy.   It was in the sixteenth century, too, that country houses began always to have a *long gallery* upstairs, with a fine staircase leading up to it   Music was becoming very popular at this time, and these long galleries (which were really very big rooms) were used for musical performances and for dancing

Renaissance Architecture.—This love of music was one of the results of the Renaissance, which taught men to enjoy life more, in all sorts of ways   The Renaissance had other effects, too, upon architecture   The revival of Greek learning was turning men's eyes also to the buildings of the ancient world   Building in the classical style of the Greeks and Romans came into fashion, and Gothic architecture was forgotten   Indeed, it was called *Gothic* by architects who thought that only men as uncivilised as Goths would build without imitating the style of ancient Greece and Rome   Hence most modern architecture is very unlike Gothic.   We shall read later (Chapter XXVII) about building in modern times.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIII

1. Questions :—

    (a) What sort of medieval buildings are most common to day, and why ?

    (b) What are the chief " styles " of medieval architecture ? Make a list of them, and opposite each write down (i) the characteristics by which it is most easily distinguished from the other styles, (ii) dates showing the times when it was most common

    (c) Write a short composition on " Windows in the Middle Ages "

    (d) What is *Gothic* architecture, and why is it so called ?

    (e) What changes in building took place in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and why ?

    (f) Explain the meaning of each of the following —Triforium, clear-storey, zigzag pattern, capital, cushion capital, arcade, splay, lancet, shaft, trough-moulding, fan-vaulting, long gallery

2. Visit any medieval church or other building near your home, try to tell, by looking at it, how old each part of it is, then find out (from the verger, the caretaker, or a book) how far you are right

3 Make pictures or models of —

    (a) Typical windows in all the " styles " of medieval building

    (b) Any medieval building near your home.

CHAPTER XIV

THE END OF THE MIDDLE AGES

MOST of us think of the Middle Ages as the time of knights in armour, tournaments, and castles   In this book we have learnt also that it was the time of villeins and bailiffs, monasteries and churches   By the fifteenth century all these things were rapidly ceasing to exist, except the churches   By the end of the sixteenth century even the Church was vastly altered from what it had been   The " Catholic " Church was no longer really " universal," and there were no tournaments, no villeins or bailiffs, and only the ruins of monasteries and castles

Rise of English Literature.—That is what we mean by the end of the Middle Ages   We have seen already how warfare changed in the fourteenth century (Chapter IX.) and how the Manorial System came to an end (Chapter XII)   But there were other signs, besides these, that the Middle Ages were over, and that a new age, more like the ancient age of the Greeks and Romans, was coming in.   One of the first of these signs was that people everywhere began to use their own language for writing as well as for talking   In the Middle Ages, the great age of the Roman Church, nearly all writing had been in Latin, the tongue of the Romans   But in the fourteenth century there was a great outburst of writing in the native languages of Europe   *Dante*, the greatest poet of Italy, and one of the greatest

poets of all time, wrote his greatest poems in Italian
Chaucer, the first great English poet, wrote the
" Canterbury Tales " and most of his other poems
in English   And from that time more and more
literature was written in English, until about the
year 1600 there came the great Elizabethan age of
literature, when *Shakespeare*, *Spenser*, *Ben Jonson*,
and many other famous men, were all at the same time
writing fine works in English.

The Reformation.—One of the greatest books of
that age was the Authorised Version of the English
Bible, published in 1611   That, too, was another sign
of the times. In the Middle Ages the Roman Church
had believed that the Latin Bible was enough for
everybody   But at the end of the Middle Ages men
were beginning to think for themselves, instead of taking
all their opinions from the priest. So there were
translations of the Bible into German and French
and English, as well as other languages.   People began
to study for themselves the Bible and the religious
teachings of the Church, and many began to feel that
they could belong to the Roman Church no longer
They protested against the authority of the Roman
Church, and so they were called *Protestants*.   In
Germany, *Martin Luther* was their leader , in France,
John Calvin , in Scotland, *John Knox*.   In England
there was no single Protestant leader , but Henry VIII.
made himself Head of the English Church in 1534,
instead of the Pope , in the years 1536 to 1539 he
had all the monasteries destroyed , and when Elizabeth
came to the throne (in 1558) she soon established
the present Church of England   This series of reforms
in religion is always known as the *Reformation*

The New Learning and Art.—The Reformation had
begun by the study of the New Testament in Greek,

the language in which it was originally written
Other famous books of the ancient Greeks were also
studied—especially the works of the Greek scientists

SIXTEENTH-CENTURY BUILDINGS, HARROW SCHOOL
(*From an old Print*)

and philosophers   So it became important to learn
the Greek language, and schools were set up all
over Europe to teach it.   In England these schools
are usually known as *Grammar Schools*, and most

of them were founded in the sixteenth century In the Middle Ages there had been seven subjects taught in most schools and universities Grammar (the art of writing properly), Rhetoric (the art of making speeches), Logic (the art of reasoning), and Astronomy, Geometry, Arithmetic, and Music In the Grammar Schools the chief subjects were Greek and
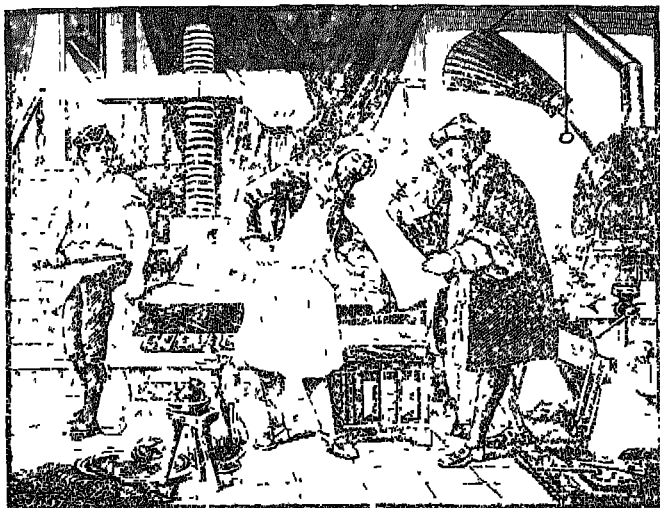
CAXTON AND HIS PRINTING PRESS
(*From Longmans' "New Historical Readers," Book V.*)

Latin, and in most of these schools little else was taught until the nineteenth century

The *New Learning* (as this study of Greek and Latin was called) would not have been able to spread nearly so widely if it had not been for the invention of printing. Nobody knows who was its first inventor, but in the fifteenth century it became very popular in Germany, and in 1476 *William Caxton* set up the first

English printing press, at Westminster. In the Middle
Ages, the only books were manuscripts which had
been copied out by hand, and so they were very
scarce   Printed books, however, soon became much
commoner and cheaper than the old manuscripts, and
so they made the New Learning easier to obtain

The New Learning came into fashion because, as the
Middle Ages were ending, people tried to become as much
like the ancient Greeks and Romans as possible, and
to do this they learned the languages of the Greeks
and Romans and tried to think as they had done.
They imitated them in other ways, too   Italian
architecture and, later on, the architecture of the
other countries in Europe, began to be built in the
style of these Greeks and Romans of *classical* times,
and so the new style of building is often known as
classical architecture (see Chapter XXVII.)   It is also
sometimes called *Renaissance architecture*, because the
whole of this vast change at the end of the Middle
Ages was like a *rebirth* of Europe, and *Renaissance* is
a French word for " rebirth."

Besides architecture, sculpture and painting and
music were revived, as well as many other things
which help to make life more enjoyable   The men
of the Renaissance wanted to enjoy their lives much
more than medieval people had done, and so they
revived the beautiful *arts* of ancient times   *Michael
Angelo* was perhaps the greatest of the Italian artists
of the Renaissance, because he was architect, sculptor,
and painter in one   Another of them was *Leonardo
da Vinci*, whose picture, " The Last Supper," most
of us know   But besides being a great painter he
was a great scientist as well   He even tried to invent
a flying machine—400 years ago !

Geographical Discoveries.—For he was, like many
men at this time, fond of discovering things , and the

things they were most eager to discover were new ways about the world The Middle Ages were a stay-at-home time, in modern times everybody travels a little, and many people travel much In the fifteenth century Portuguese discoverers tried to find new routes to India, for in 1453 the Turks had captured Constantinople, the old meeting-place for traders to the East, and the old routes were no longer safe Prince Henry of Portugal (the *Navigator,* as he is called) paid men to find a way round Africa They failed at first, but they found out much about the west coast of Africa, and after Prince Henry's death, one Portuguese sailor (*Bartholomew Diaz*) reached the *Cape of Good Hope* This was in 1486, and twelve years later another Portuguese, *Vasco da Gama,* sailed right round Africa to India

Meanwhile, other nations set out on the path of discovery. In 1492 *Columbus,* thinking the eastern route to India would never be found, set sail to the west He believed that the world was round, and that thus he would reach the eastern shores of India Instead, as we know, he discovered America by accident, and it was not until 1521 that another Spanish expedition, led by *Magellan,* sailed to the south of America and so round the world. England soon began to join in the race for discovery In 1497 *Cabot* sailed in English ships to *Newfoundland* And in 1580 the first Englishman (*Sir Francis Drake*) returned from sailing round the world

Trade and Colonies.—Most of us know Sir Francis Drake as the bold buccaneer who robbed the Spaniards of their trade In fact, his voyage round the world, like most of the other voyages of discovery, was meant to find out new trade routes Trade was becoming very important at the beginning of the Modern Age, and special companies were established to trade with

different parts of the world   In England the most famous of these was the *East India Company*, which was founded in 1600 to trade with the far East   There was also the *Turkey Company*, and a *Muscovy Company* to trade with Moscow and the Russians

Even the buccaneering voyages of men like Drake and Hawkins were meant chiefly for gain   Queen Elizabeth had shares in many of them and took part of the profits   In the same way, men like *Sir Walter Raleigh* tried to establish English colonies which would provide fresh trade for English merchants   Raleigh's new colony, *Virginia*, broke up soon after he founded it   But in 1607 it was founded again, and it was followed by others, including *Carolina*, which was named after Charles II., as Virginia had been named after Queen Elizabeth   In 1655 *Jamaica* was captured from the Spaniards, and in 1665 *New York* was captured from the Dutch   New England was founded (1620) by the *Pilgrim Fathers*, who wanted to live where they could worship as they wished   Eight or nine years later another company of Puritans settled in *Massachusetts*, and in 1633 *Maryland* was established for Catholics who could not worship freely in England

The Modern Age.—Thus by the end of the seventeenth century, England had an empire and a great foreign trade, neither of which would have been possible in the Middle Ages   The Feudal System, with its manors and castles, had disappeared , there were new, Protestant churches, which the medieval Church had never known , and so many new lands had been discovered that the world seemed twice as big, and America was even known as the New World   The Middle Ages were at an end, and the Modern Age had begun

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIV

1. Make a time chart to illustrate the various changes which took place at the end of the Middle Ages (divide the chart into separate columns for the different kinds of change)

2 Questions .—
   (a) How long did the Middle Ages last ? Do you think this is a good name, and why ?
   (b) What do we mean by the Renaissance ?
   (c) What do you know about the Reformation ? How was it connected with the Renaissance ?
   (d) What were the chief differences between school lessons in the Middle Ages and in Modern Times ?
   (e) Make a list of English schools founded in the sixteenth century, giving the date of the foundation of each
   (f) In what ways was men's knowledge of the world increased between 1400 and 1600 ?
   (g) What signs were there, in the sixteenth century, that trade was becoming more important ?
   (h) Write an account of the growth of the British Empire during the seventeenth century, illustrating your answer by a time chart
   (i) For what different reasons were English colonies founded in the seventeenth century ?
   (j) What do you know about the following ?—Dante , Chaucer , Protestants , Luther , Calvin , Knox , Grammar Schools , the New Learning , Caxton , Michael Angelo , Leonardo da Vinci , Prince Henry the Navigator , Bartholomew Diaz , Vasco da Gama , Columbus, Magellan , Cabot , East India Company , Muscovy Company , Raleigh , Virginia , Carolina , New York , New England , Pilgrim Fathers , Maryland

3. Draw maps of —
   (a) The world, showing the chief geographical discoveries in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries   Mark the routes of the chief explorers
   (b) America, illustrating the growth of the British Empire in the seventeenth century
   (c) Europe, shading the countries which became Protestant in the sixteenth century

CHAPTER XV

COUNTRY LIFE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

DURING the last few chapters we have been reading
of great changes which were taking place in the lives
of the people We shall be reading of other, and
even greater, changes in nearly all the rest of this
book But during the seventeenth century there were
no very great changes in the way the people lived
The way in which they were governed was altered very
much indeed, but although those were very exciting
times, most people went on with their lives as usual
And so we can pause here and see how the people of
England did live in the seventeenth century

Results of the Enclosures.—One of the greatest
changes which had taken place in the century before
was the enclosures, of which we read in Chapter XII
But by 1600 nearly all the enclosing had finished,
because there was now being produced as much wool
as the weavers wanted, and so farmers could not
make any more money out of rearing sheep. Many
of them started to grow corn again, and so the " vaga-
bonds " could get work in the cornfields, and there
was not nearly so much unemployment.

But these men were not so well off now as they
had been before the common lands had been enclosed,
because they no longer owned any land of their own.
They were just *labourers*, and instead of cultivating
their own land for themselves they cultivated another

man's land for wages   The usual wages of these
labourers was four shillings a week, without any food ,
but most of them lived in the house of the man who
employed them—at any rate until they were married,
and often afterwards — and then they received two
shillings a week and had all their food for nothing

HARVESTING IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England "*)

Food and Drink.—This seems very little for a
full-grown man to be earning , but we must remember
that in the seventeenth century money was worth about
ten times as much as it is now , so that the pay was
not so bad after all. Still, these labourers were not
so well off as a farm labourer nowadays   For one
thing, their food was not nearly so good. Those who
lived with their master had meals with him, but they

had to leave the table when the pudding came on and go without it

Besides, even the food they had was not so nice as now   There was hardly any white bread at all   Only the richest people could afford it   The rest (even the master farmers) had to have coarse brown bread made of rye—not nearly so nourishing as our brown bread nowadays.   Then they could only have fresh meat in the summer and autumn   In those days farmers had not learned how to feed their cattle in the winter, and so they had to kill them in November, and from then until the next summer everybody had to eat salt meat

They were just as badly off for drink as they were for food.   Hardly anybody had ever heard of tea or coffee until the very end of the century, when both of these drinks became fashionable   But even then they were only fashionable in the towns and among the rich.   Country people still had only three regular things to drink—water, milk, and beer , and they nearly always chose beer   It was quite a common thing for beer to be given to boys at school during their meals   For this reason brewing was always very important, and every wife had to know how to make good beer.

Home Work.—There were plenty of other things, too, which women had to do then, and which they do not have to do now   There were hardly any factories in those days, and very many things had to be made at home.   Even the farmers who employed labourers were not above earning extra money by weaving cloth in their spare time, and most farmhouses contained a loom   It was the women of the house who had to prepare the *yarn* for these looms to weave, and as the mother was often too busy, most of this spinning was done by the unmarried daughters

Still, all the spinning and weaving was only done

in spare time   During most of the day the women were busy cooking and washing pots, milking cows and feeding the fowls, as they do on farms nowadays   The farmer and his labourers would be busy working in the fields   For we must not imagine that the farmer watched other people at work, without doing any himself. He would harness the horses and hold the plough as much as the labourers , indeed, he would do much of the hardest work himself, rather than trust others to do it

The Yeomen.—These farmers usually owned their own land, and they were often called *Yeomen.*   The yeoman farmer did not rent hundreds of acres of land as a modern farmer does   Most had about thirty or forty acres of their own   This was quite a small farm, and very often indeed it was split up into small strips in the open fields, just as it had been in the Middle Ages, under the Manorial System   A yeoman would be considered quite well off if he could make sixty or seventy pounds a year by his farm.

The Squire.—There was still a lord of the manor in most villages, only by now he was called the *Squire*   Usually he had built a comfortable manor house, with a farm of its own, and he was much better off than the yeomen. And yet he was not very different from them   During most of the year he would live in the same way, eating the same kind of food and enjoying the same kind of amusements   Even his wife would have to work at baking and brewing and sewing   Most women, even squires' wives, could not read at all, and the usual way in which they spent their spare time was in doing fancy needlework and sometimes learning music

The roads were still very bad indeed, and so very few people ever went far from their own village   Sometimes the farmer went to the nearest market town

5

to buy or sell cattle or produce, but most farms just
produced enough for their own people, and so it was
not often necessary to go to market   Two or three
times a year, the squire might have to go to the chief
town of the county in which he lived, in order to
attend the *Assizes*.   Many of the squires were *Justices
of the Peace* or *Magistrates*, and it was their duty to
keep their own districts in order by punishing wrong-

A SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY   A SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
        YEOMAN.   COUNTRYWOMAN
(Taken from Speed's Map of the Kingdom of England, 1616.)
(*From Gardiner's " A Student's History of England "*)

doers, finding work for the unemployed, and so on
At the assizes all the magistrates met together to
discuss the affairs of the county as well as to have
criminals tried by one of the king's judges   Besides
this, they met four times a year at the *Quarter Sessions*,
for business which was not important enough for the
assizes
    But most of the people in seventeenth-century
England never saw a town at all   There were not
many towns, and London was the only big one.   But

as London and some other towns were very important, we must learn about them in a separate chapter.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XV

1. Questions :—
    (a) "The way in which they were governed was altered very much indeed" (page 126)   What does this refer to ?
    (b) How were the following things different in the seventeenth century from what they are now ?—(i) Wages, (ii) money, (iii) food and drink, (iv) farms
    (c) Imagine you are one of the following, in the seventeenth century, and write an account of a day in your life —
        (i) A yeoman, (ii) a labourer, (iii) a squire, (iv) the wife of one of these three
    (d) What do you know about the following ?—Enclosures, vagabonds, common lands, Domestic System, spinsters, squire, magistrates

2 Source Exercise —
    " He [Sir Roger de Coverley] would needs carry Will Wimble and myself with him to the country *assizes*, as we were upon the road, Will Wimble joined a couple of plain men who rode before us, and conversed with them for some time, during which my friend Sir Roger acquainted me with their characters

    " ' The first of them,' says he, ' that has a spaniel by his side, is a *yeoman* of about an hundred pounds a year   He knocks down a dinner with his gun twice or thrice a week, and by that means lives much cheaper than those who have not so good an estate as himself   The other, that rides along with him, is Tom Touchy, a fellow famous for taking the law of everybody   There is not one in the town where he lives that he has not *sued* at a *quarter-sessions*.' "

    (a) This passage is from an essay in *The Spectator,* written by *Joseph Addison*   Find out as much as you can about both
    (b) What do we learn from this passage about the size of towns in the seventeenth century ?
    (c) How were all these men travelling ?   Why ?
    (d) To what class did Sir Roger belong ?
    (e) Was this yeoman poor or well off ?   Give reasons for your answer
    (f) Write notes on the words in italics

3 Make pictures or models to illustrate the sort of clothes worn in the seventeenth century by (a) country gentlemen, (b) yeomen, (c) labourers

CHAPTER XVI

Town Life in the Seventeenth Century

Seventeenth-Century Streets.—We have already seen (in Chapter X.) what medieval towns were like   In the seventeenth century they were not much different in appearance. There were still the same narrow streets, with their overhanging half-timbered houses and shops, and each of these had the same sort of signs as in the fourteenth century. The streets were still drained by a single gutter in the middle, and as there were now more carts than in the Middle Ages, people were always getting their clothes spoilt by the mud thrown up by cart wheels as they splashed through the gutter

The Plague and the Fire of London.—In some towns the gutters were now cleared out occasionally   But even at Westminster, where the king lived and Parliament met, it was only while the plague was raging that they were cleared every day   And as other towns were less clean than this, outbreaks of plague were still very frequent   But it was in this century (in 1665) that the last great outbreak of the plague occurred in London, and it was one of the worst of all—though not nearly so bad as the Black Death of 1349

Strangely enough, in the next year London suffered from an outbreak of the other great danger of those old, wooden towns   This was the Great Fire of 1666, and it destroyed most of the buildings and nearly all
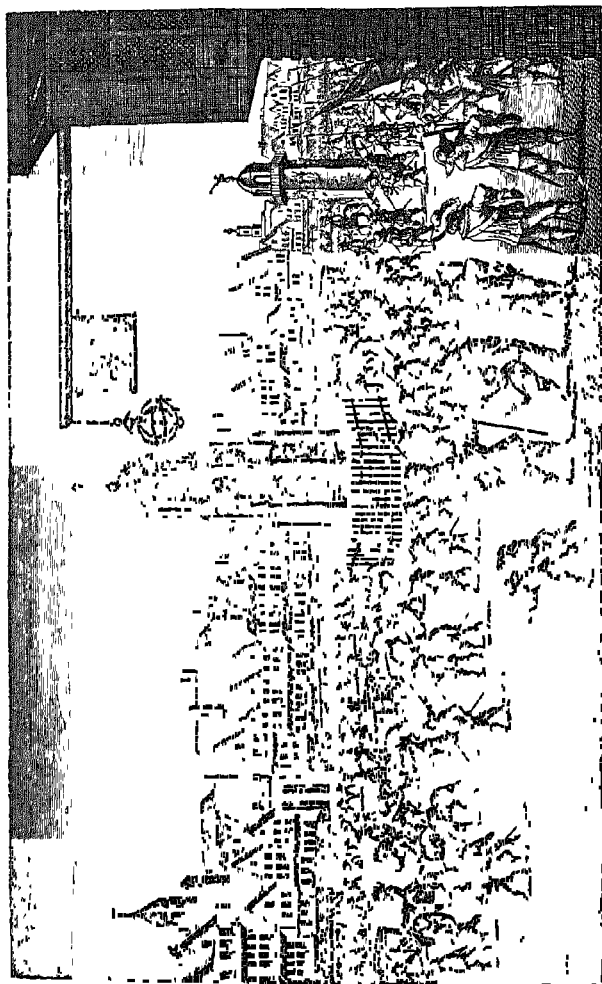
CHEAPSIDE (LONDON) IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
(For views of the same street at other periods, see pages 79, 182, and 187)
(*From Besant's "History of London"*)

the churches (though they were built of stone) in the
City of London. Eighty-nine churches in all were
burnt down , so it is easy to imagine the fearful
destruction which this fire caused all over the city.
One good result came from the fire   All London had
to be rebuilt, and this time far more buildings were of
stone, and so fire was not so dangerous in future
Besides, this gave a fine opportunity to one of England's
greatest architects—*Sir Christopher Wren*   He rebuilt
most of the churches, including St Paul's Cathedral;
nearly all of them are still standing, and many of them
are among the most beautiful buildings in the world.

But we must not imagine that other towns had
so many churches as London   Most towns had still
only one main street, and only the biggest towns (like
Bristol, Norwich, York, Nottingham, and a few others)
had more than one church   And very often that one
church would hold nearly all the grown-up people in
the town

Amusements.—We must remember, too, that these
towns had no such amusements as we know   London
had several theatres, including the Globe Theatre,
where Shakespeare's plays were acted in the early years
of the seventeenth century   But most towns had no
theatres at all, although in some of them there were
bear-rings and *bull-rings*, where animals were worried
(or *baited*) by packs of dogs which were set on to them.

Very few of the people could either read or write,
and so they had to find their own amusements   In
the summer it was easy to play games, but the winter
months must have been very dull   There were no
lights in the streets, and so there were always thieves
about at night time   And as there were no policemen,
it was always as well to keep indoors after dark   In
1685 London streets began to be lighted with oil
lamps, one at every tenth house   But other towns

were still without street lights, and even London would
have seemed very dark indeed to our ideas

In the summer outdoor games were common
Every town had some fields in it or near it, and so
open-air dancing often took place, particularly at
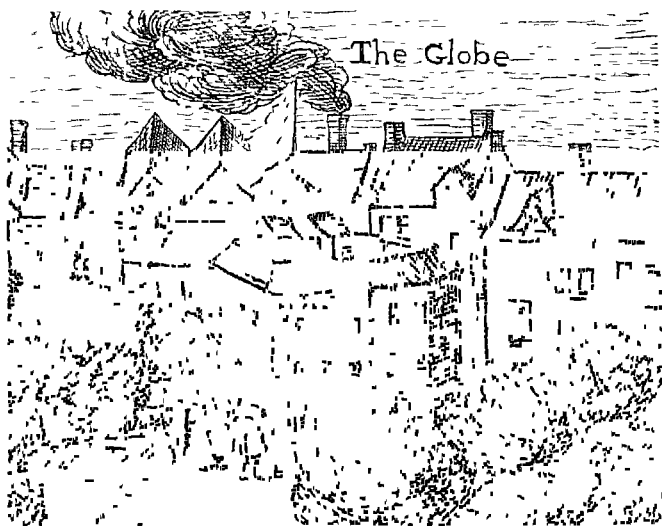
THE GLOBE THEATRE (LONDON) IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
(*From an old Print*)

special seasons like May Day and Midsummer and
at fair times Football and a sort of cricket were
played, too, though the football was usually played
in the streets, and as there were no goals, no pitch,
and no teams—everybody kicking the ball anyhow,
and in any direction, and keeping it to himself as
long as he could—football was rather a scramble

At the end of the century a new kind of place for

spending the evening became popular in London—but
not anywhere else This was the *Coffee-House*   Coffee
was just becoming a fashionable drink (it came from
Turkey, and its name is a Turkish word) and the
coffee-houses were a sort of restaurant (or *café*, as we
still call it) where men met at night to talk and pass
the time in various ways, over their cups of the new
drink.

The Workpeople.—Most of the houses were still
shops—and *workshops*, too, as in the Middle Ages (see
Chapter X)   There were still masters, journeymen,
and apprentices, but the gilds were no longer powerful
in most towns   Instead of trade being regulated by
the gilds in each town, it was now regulated by the
Government of the whole country   In the year 1563
Parliament passed a famous *Statute of Apprentices*,
which made some important rules for regulating the
workpeople in the towns

In the first place, this Act enforced the old rule
that every apprentice must spend seven years in
learning his trade   In some places apprentices had
been taking less time than this, and consequently
many of them never became good workmen   This
law also tried to prevent agricultural labourers from
running away to the towns and becoming apprentices
there , and it was ordered that in some trades no boy
should be allowed to be an apprentice unless his father
was a yeoman, or at least as high in rank as that

These parts of the Statute of Apprentices were
meant to make sure that workmen should be trained
properly in their trade. Another clause forbade
masters to take too many apprentices   Some masters
had tried to save money by keeping on their apprentices
after they had served their seven years, or by having
a large number of apprentices and no journeymen
This was not fair to the apprentices, who were pre-

rented from becoming journeymen at the proper time, nor was it fair to the journeymen who were thus kept out of employment

Wages.—Finally, the Statute of Apprentices ordered that wages should be settled, not by the gilds, as in the old days, but by the *Justices of the Peace* in the district This was better than having wages settled by Parliament, because the magistrates knew what was fairest in their own neighbourhood much better than Parliament could.

Wages had risen since the fourteenth century— but so had prices, so that the workers were perhaps no better off The proper wage for a weaver was a shilling a day, but many of them got much less than that. Masons received about eightpence or ninepence a day; and as both weavers and masons were specially skilled workmen, we can understand that unskilled workmen would earn much less than this

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVI

1 Find out as much as you can about the following, and then write notes on them —The Plague, The Great Fire of London, Sir Christopher Wren, The Globe Theatre

2 Make a time chart showing as many dates as you can find between 1550 and 1700 about (*a*) English life and events, (*b*) events in your own town

(Divide the chart into two columns, one for (*a*) and one for (*b*))

3 Questions —
  (*a*) What were the results of the Great Fire of London ?
  (*b*) In what ways was London different from other English towns in the seventeenth century ?
  (*c*) Read Chapter X again · Which were the seventeenth-century towns more like—fourteenth-century towns or modern ones ? What can you learn from this, when you remember that the seventeenth century was just as far from the fourteenth as it was from the twentieth century !

(d) What do you know about games in the seventeenth century ?

(e) What did the *Statute of Apprentices* say, and why was it important ?

(f) What do you know about the following ?—Wages in the seventeenth century, bear-baiting, coffee-houses; Justices of the Peace.

4 Source Exercise :—

"The *justices of the peace* of every shire, and every *mayor* or other head officer within every city, shall yearly, at every general *sessions* holden after Easter, conferring together respecting the plenty or scarcity of the time, and other circumstances necessary to be considered, rate and appoint the wages of *artificers* and *labourers,* as they shall think meet, by the year or by the day, week, month, or otherwise, with meat and drink or without meat and drink

"Every person that shall have three *apprentices* in any of the said *crafts,* shall keep one *journeyman,* and for every apprentice above the number of three, one other journeyman " (*Statutes of the Realm,* Vol IV , Part I , page 414.)

(a) Where are these passages taken from ?

(b) Who are to settle wages, and why ?

(c) " With meat and drink or without meat and drink " · what can you learn from this about the life of seventeenth-century workmen ?

(d) Write notes on the words in italics

5 Draw pictures of a seventeenth-century street, house, or shop (if possible copy from some old picture of your own town) Compare this with your drawings of fourteenth-century buildings (Chapter X)

6 Make pictures or models to illustrate the dress worn in the seventeenth century by (a) nobles , (b) tradespeople.

CHAPTER XVII

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

I —CLOTHMAKING

The Woollen Industry and the Domestic System.—We have learned already (Chapter XII) how a great industry arose in England in the later Middle Ages This was the Woollen Industry, and by the end of the seventeenth century England was the chief woolmaking country in the world   Formerly all the best wool had been made in Flanders, but there was so much fighting in the Netherlands in the seventeenth century that many of the weavers fled to England, and so the weaving industry passed to this country

Except for this there had been no great change in clothmaking   Most of the weavers still worked at home, on looms which they owned themselves, making cloth from yarn which they bought, and selling the cloth when they had made it   Thus, as we have learned, was called the *Domestic System*, because everything was made at home and not in factories   But in the eighteenth century this system was gradually changed, until nearly everything came to be made in factories and so nowadays we have the *Factory System*.

This change in the system of industry is known as the *Industrial Revolution*   But whereas most revolutions happen suddenly, this one was very slow   There had been factories before the eighteenth century, especially in towns where much cloth was made :

but they were few and far between   Since the
eighteenth century every town has become full of
factories   The change was very gradual, but it was
very great, and so there is good reason for calling it a
" revolution."

Machinery.—All this was due to the invention of
a number of machines which made weaving easier
First of all came the *Flying Shuttle*, which was invented
by a man called *Kay* in 1733   Before this time
weaving had been a very slow business   All the
threads in one direction had had to be stretched out
tight, while the weaver with his shuttle passed the
other threads over and under them—much as a big
hole is darned in a stocking—until a piece of cloth
was made.   Instead of this, Kay made a weaving-frame
which held the first threads, one up and one down, like
a sort of tunnel, so that a heavy shuttle containing
the cross-thread could be thrown through the opening
and made tight at the other end   By this means
weavers were enabled to work ten times as fast as
they had done previously

But this, in a way, was awkward.   You know
already that the weavers' yarn was mostly spun in the
farmhouses by the " spinsters."   Even before Kay
invented his flying shuttle the spinners had not been
able to make yarn as fast as the weavers wanted it
After Kay's invention, of course, they were more
behindhand than ever.   So other inventors set to
work to speed up spinning

Thirty-two years passed before anything really useful
was discovered.   Then inventions came thick and fast
In 1765 *Hargreaves* invented his " *Spinning Jenny*,"
with which a single spinner could spin ten threads
at once instead of one, with the help of a boy to turn
the handle   Then spinning was made quicker still
when *Arkwright*, who had already made an improved

spinning machine, discovered how to work it by means of a waterwheel instead of by hand

Twelve years later (in 1779) an invention by *Samuel Crompton* combined all the good points of Hargreaves' jenny and Arkwright's spinning machine, and made spinning even faster, since it was so simple that one man could mind several machines Crompton's *mule* (as this machine was called) had another good point It was the first machine which could spin a yarn which was thin and yet strong, and this made it possible to make cotton as well as woollen cloth Till this time nearly all our cotton goods had come from India, and were called " calico " after the Indian town Calicut But now that Crompton's mule had enabled English weavers to make cotton cloths, the English cotton industry began to develop rapidly until it covered the whole of South Lancashire, as it does to-day.

At first, Crompton's mule was worked by a horse In 1785 *Cartwright* invented a weaving loom which was worked in a similar way, except that Cartwright used a bull instead of a horse Four years later Cartwright had his looms worked by steam power instead, and before long the spinning machines were also being worked by steam By the year 1815 there were 3,000 " power-looms " in England Ten years later there were ten times as many, and in another ten years there were over 100,000

The Colouring of Cloth.—Thus the woollen and cotton industries were beginning to spread rapidly, and the other " textile " industries soon developed in the same way. Everything depended on making all the processes as quick as possible, and in 1810 a new invention changed one of the slowest processes into one of the quickest Hitherto all cloth had had to be bleached in the sunlight, and often this would take

as long as six months   But now *Tennant* discovered
that bleaching could be done by chemicals such as
chlorine, which not only made the cloth whiter, but,
besides, took less than a week instead of six months
to do it

When the cloth was bleached it could be coloured
into patterns, and long before Tennant's discovery
this process, too, had been quickened. In the old
days every pattern had had to be put on the cloth bit
by bit, by means of stamps   But in 1785 *cylinder
printing* was invented   By this, cloth was passed
beneath an inked roller (much like a mangle) which
was kept turning all the time, and so time was saved,
and again clothmaking was made faster

Steam Power.—By the early part of the nineteenth
century nearly all these machines were being driven by
steam, about which we shall read in the next chapter.
But it is important to remember that steam engines
are expensive, and can only be bought by men with
plenty of money   Besides, weavers who still owned
hand-looms could not work nearly so fast as the new
power-looms.   So gradually the hand-looms were given
up, and their owners went to work instead for some
wealthy man, who could afford to buy power-looms
and the engine to drive them   And as the owner
would naturally want all the looms to be driven by one
engine, they had to be kept close together in the same
building   In this way factories began to spring up
everywhere, and before long English industry was
working under the Factory System, as it does to-day

This factory system was fully established by the
middle of the nineteenth century   Since then there
have been other great inventions, and electricity is
gradually taking the place of steam in driving the
machines   But the factory system is still here, in spite
of all these later inventions, and it came at first because

steam engines were invented   And that brings us to
another part of the Industrial Revolution.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVII

1. Find out as much as you can about the following, and then write
   short notes about them.—John Kay, James Hargreaves,
   Sir Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, The Rev Edmund
   Cartwright

2 Make a time chart showing as many dates as you can find about
  Clothmaking in the Industrial Revolution between 1700 and
  1850

3 Questions :

   (a) What were the *Domestic System* and the *Factory System* ?
   (b) What do you know about the following ?—Power-loom ;
       Spinning Jenny, Flying Shuttle, Crompton's Mule,
       spinsters, cylinder printing, calico.

4 Source Exercise :—

   " The principal estates being gone from the family, my
father resorted to the common but never-failing resource at
that period, viz, the *loom* for men and the *cards* and *hand-wheel*
for women and boys   He married a *spinster*, and my mother
taught me (while I was too young to weave) to earn my bread
by carding and spinning cotton, winding linen or cotton *weft*
for my father and elder brothers at the loom, until I became
of sufficient age and strength for my father to put me into
a loom

   " Availing myself of the *improvements that came out while
I was in my teens*, by the time I was married—with my little
savings and a practical knowledge of every process from the
cotton bag to the piece of cloth (such as carding by hand or
by the *engine*, spinning by the hand-wheel or *jenny*, winding,
warping, sizing, looming the web, and weaving, either by hand
or *fly-shuttle*)—*I was ready to commence business for myself*
In a few years I was well established and employed many hands
(both in spinning and weaving) as a *master manufacturer* "
(Radcliffe, *Origin of Power-Loom Weaving*)

   (a) About what time would this be written ?   Give reasons
       for your answer
   (b) Comment on the words and passages in italics

5. Make models or drawings of any of the inventions mentioned
   in this chapter

CHAPTER XVIII

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

II.—THE AGE OF IRON AND STEAM

THE changes in the cloth industries, about which we have just been reading, were mostly brought about by men who invented machines   But although a hand-worked machine makes a great difference to the speed at which things can be manufactured, machines worked by engines make a much bigger difference still   One of the chief changes caused by the Industrial Revolution was that it led to steam being used for nearly all machinery, and that, of course, made the lives of the workers very different from what they had been.

James Watt.—This change, too, was the work of a few great inventors   Chief of them all was *James Watt*   He was not the first man to make a steam engine, but he was the first to make a steam engine which *paid*—and that made all the difference   Early in the eighteenth century, *Thomas Newcomen* had invented a "fire engine," as it was called—because it was the first machine to have a fire connected with it. But Newcomen's engine used up an enormous amount of coal, and did not do so very much work after all, and so not many manufacturers had found it worth while to use it.

But in 1764 somebody sent one of Newcomen's engines to Watt to be repaired, and Watt, who was

a very skilful engineer, soon saw why it was so wasteful
Next year he invented a new " condenser " for use
with Newcomen engines, and four years later he
invented a steam engine of his own, which worked
much better than Newcomen's and used up less coal.

Before long Watt's engines were being bought by
manufacturers all over England, and in other countries
as well   So he went into partnership with *Matthew
Boulton*, a Birmingham engineer, and soon Boulton
& Watt's works at Soho (near Birmingham) were
turning out steam engines for all sorts of purposes—
not only for driving factory machinery, but for pumping
water out of mines and doing many other things for
which machinery had never been used before

John Wilkinson —Steam engines (like motors)
depend very much on their cylinders, in which the
pistons move as they turn the wheels   Now Boulton &
Watt found that the cylinders they made were very
faulty—the inside was uneven and so they leaked
and wasted much steam   But a few miles away—at
Bilston—was another engineer who could make quite
sound cylinders   This man was named *Wilkinson*,
and up till now his cylinders had mostly been sold
to the Government for use as guns   But now Wilkinson
began making cylinders for the Boulton & Watt
engines, which were better than ever in consequence
The works of Boulton & Watt at Soho, and the works
of Wilkinson at Bilston, were two of the first great
engineering works in England   Before long other
works began to be built near them and between them,
and now the whole district between Bilston and Soho
is covered with ironworks, and is known as the *Black
Country*

The Black Country.—Soon the Black Country became
the most important place in the world for the manu-

IRON-WORKING IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.
(From Ashton's "Iron and Steel in the Industrial Revolution")

facture of iron goods And there is a good reason for this When machinery began to be made chiefly of iron instead of wood, and when it began to be driven by steam, two things were most important to every manufacturer These were iron and coal—coal to help in making steam and also to help in making iron And so English factories began to be built in those places where iron and coal are found together—in the Black Country, on the lower slopes of the Pennine Chain (where there is plenty of coal), and in Durham and South Wales

The Smelting of Iron.—There had been iron and steel before the Industrial Revolution, but it was expensive to make, and therefore wood had been used for machinery as much as possible Besides, until the eighteenth century, charcoal was used instead of coal for smelting iron, and so the iron had been smelted near the forests—especially in Kent and Sussex, because the forests there were near to London

It was not till the middle of the eighteenth century that this slow and expensive way of smelting iron was changed. About 1760 several engineers (especially *James Smeaton*, at Carron in Scotland, and *Abraham Darby*, at Coalbrookdale in Shropshire) discovered how to make iron profitably by using coal instead of charcoal It was fortunate that this happened just at that time, since iron was now needed more than ever, for the machines and steam engines which were just being invented

Besides, iron was beginning to be used instead of wood, and even stone, for all kinds of purposes In 1767 the first iron rails were laid down—in a mine at Coalbrookdale—and at the same place, in 1779, there was built across the River Severn the first iron bridge Eleven years later Wilkinson of Bilston even built an iron ship, and although people laughed at him at the
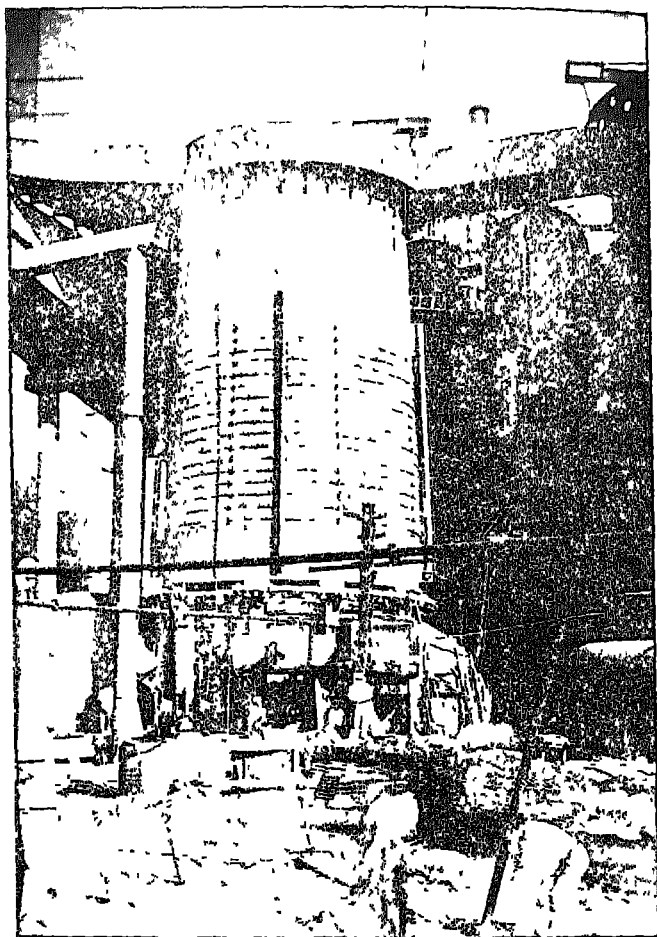
IRON-WORKING TO-DAY.

A blast furnace at Bilston, Staffordshire

(By permission of Messrs Alfred Hickman, Bilston)

time, he was right after all in thinking that in the
future iron ships would prove to be better than wooden
ones Soon after this English iron pipes were laid
down for a new water system in Paris

In fact, the age of iron had come, and iron was
soon going to be wanted everywhere Consequently,
new ways had to be found for transporting iron rails,
iron pipes, and iron machinery—as well as things not
made of iron—from the places where they were made
to the places where they were wanted And, of course,
even the ships and trains which did this transporting
were soon made of iron too.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVIII

1. Find out as much as you can about the following, and then
   write short notes about them —Thomas Newcomen , James
   Watt , Matthew Boulton , John Wilkinson , James Smeaton ,
   Abraham Darby

2. Make a time chart showing as many dates as you can find about
   Iron and Steam in the Industrial Revolution between 1700
   and 1850

3 Questions —

   (a) Why is Watt more famous than Newcomen ?
   (b) How was iron smelted (i) before, (ii) after the Industrial
       Revolution ?
   (c) What things can you think of, which were not made of iron
       until the Industrial Revolution ? What were they made
       of before ?
   (d) Where were most of the ironworks (i) before, (ii) after the
       Industrial Revolution ? Why was this change ?
   (e) What do you know about the following ?—Black Country ,
       Soho , Coalbrookdale , Carron , Bilston

4 Source Exercise :—

   "We can only say that we have tried other *founders* ;
   our experience hath caused us to prefer *Mr Wilkinson's* pumps
   at £18 per ton to any others we have seen at £14 per ton But
   as to the outside *cylinder,* we do, with you, think £30 per ton

too much   Yet although we have repeatedly battled that point with Mr Wilkinson, after all we have paid him at that rate for some small engines for ourselves " (Ashton, *Iron and Steel in the Industrial Revolution*   By permission of the Manchester University Press)

    (*a*) What was the address from which this letter was written ?   Who would sign it ?   To whom would it be written ?

    (*b*) Why were the writers willing to pay dear prices for " Mr Wilkinson's " pumps and cylinders ?

    (*c*) Write notes on the words in italics

English Miles

COAL

WOOLLENS

LINEN

COTTONS & WOOLLENS

WOOLLENS

POTTERY

HARDWARE

WORSTEDS

IRON

WOOLLENS

COAL

WOOLLENS

SILK

WOOLLENS

IRON

WOOLLENS

Emery Walker Ltd. sc.

CHIEF INDUSTRIES IN EIGHTEENTH CENTURY ENGLAND.

CHAPTER XIX

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

III —TRAVEL AND TRANSPORT

" NECESSITY is the mother of invention " It was because there had been a necessity for quicker ways of making cloth that Kay, Arkwright, and Crompton had invented their machines. It was because there had been a need for more iron that the newer and quicker and cheaper methods of smelting iron had been discovered And now there was need for better methods of transporting all the new manufactures from one place to another, and that led in its turn to inventions and discoveries which made transport and travel, like everything else, quicker and cheaper

Roads before the Industrial Revolution.—You know already what travel was like in the Middle Ages, and it was no better by the eighteenth century Nobody had bothered to make good roads since the Romans had left this country 1,400 years before, and the Roman roads, with their paved surfaces, were still better than many of the newer ones In some places the roads were too bad to use, except in good weather, and everywhere they had fallen into a disgraceful state It was not unusual for stone bridges to be worn right through, so that the water could be seen through the holes in the roadway, and one traveller actually measured ruts 4 feet deep on the road between Preston and Wigan in Lancashire.

Naturally enough, carts and coaches could only travel very slowly along these roads   Six miles an hour was a good rate for a fast coach—slower than a man can run   Most goods were taken, not in carts, but on horseback, and therefore only small loads could be carried   For example, when Manchester was becoming a great cotton town and more coal was wanted for the machines, the easiest way to get it was to have it brought in sacks, on *packhorses,* from the mines at Worsley, seven miles away   This took a long time, and cost a good deal in food for the horses and wages for the drivers, and by the time the coal got to Manchester its price was twice as much as it had been at Worsley

James Brindley.—Here was a real necessity for invention, and the inventor came when he was wanted. He was a Derbyshire man, named *Brindley,* quite uneducated, but a very clever engineer   He solved this problem of transport by building canals , for carrying goods by water is many times cheaper than carrying them by road, and it was quite as quick as the roads in those days   Brindley began by building the *Bridgewater Canal* (it was the Duke of Bridgewater who owned the mines at Worsley and found the money for Brindley's work) from Worsley to Manchester in 1759, and before long the price of coal in Manchester went down from 12s to 6s a ton

Other manufacturers, seeing how profitable canals could be, soon followed the Duke of Bridgewater's example   If coal was best carried by water because of its weight, water carriage was better still for pots, which so easily broke with jolting on the roads   This led *Josiah Wedgwood,* the greatest of all Staffordshire potters to pay for a canal (also built by Brindley) which carried the Devon clay (for " china " pots) to the potteries, all the way from Liverpool, to which

it could be brought by sea This was the famous *Grand Trunk Canal*, and it is still one of the chief canals in the country

Before long the Grand Trunk Canal was joined up with the Bridgewater Canal, then it was joined up with the River Trent And as canals soon began to be made at the rate of fifteen or twenty a year, the Midlands (which were furthest from the sea and which contained most of the factories and mines) became quite a network of them

Meantime, other inventors were setting to work to improve the roads First of all, the old roads were made better Up till this time nobody had tried to make roads which would last Stones were thrown down on the surface of roads when they were worn, and then left for heavy carts to break and stamp into the roadway as they passed along Naturally, roads repaired in this way soon wore out again, and the ruts were as bad as ever

Macadam.—It was *Macadam* who first discovered how to make for roads a surface which would last for a long time His secret was never to use big stones No stone, he said, ought to be too big to go into a man's mouth, and you will notice that roadmakers nowadays never use stones more than about 2 inches across, and that they always roll them well in, so that the road surface is quite even, and stays so All our modern methods of making roads are based on this rule of Macadam's, and *macadamising* is still the regular name for certain kinds of roadmaking

Metcalf, the Blind Engineer.—But it was not enough to have the old roads free from ruts New roads were wanted because there was much more traffic, and they had to be planned to go in the best directions The man who did most for planning new roads in the manufacturing districts among the hills

of Yorkshire and Lancashire was *Metcalf*, who was
blind, but a very clever surveyor for all that   He
always knew when it was best to make a road straight
over a hill, and when to take the road round so that
it should not be too steep   Between 1760 and 1780
new roads were being made at the rate of about thirty
a year

Telford and His Bridges.—New roads need new
bridges, and the chief of the bridge-building engineers
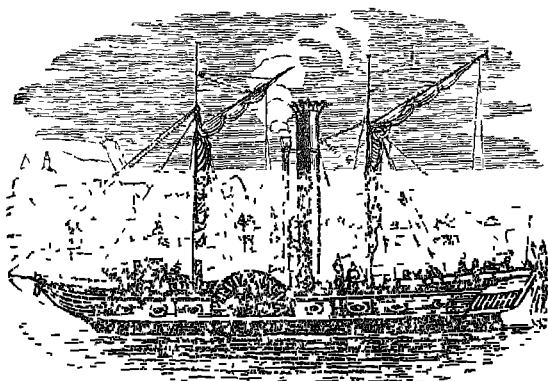
EARLY STEAMBOAT
(*From " The Instructor " of* 1833)

was *Telford*. The first iron bridge at Coalbrookdale
was soon followed by many others, and Telford himself
built more than 1,200 bridges in his lifetime, including
such famous ones as the Menai Bridge, between Wales
and Anglesey, and the bridge across the river at
Conway. Both of these are suspension bridges made
of iron, and both of them have already lasted over a
hundred years

Travel by Steam.—New roads, new canals, new
bridges—all these things made it easier and quicker to

move about from place to place   But in the early years of the nineteenth century travel became quicker still   By the year 1800 travel in the old ways was much easier, but still the old ways (on foot, on horseback, in carriages) were the only ones, as they had been for thousands of years   Then suddenly new ways of travel were invented, and before long even travel, like everything else, was being done by machines—and by machines driven by steam

Watt had made steam engines which drove wheels, but the wheels and the engines and the machines always remained stationary   Then engines were fixed in ships to drive paddle-wheels at the sides   In 1813 a boat driven by steam (it was called the " Comet," and its inventor was *Henry Bell*) was sailing regularly on the Clyde , seven years later there was a steamship service between England and Ireland , and before many years had passed, steamships had begun to compete with sailing ships almost everywhere

Railways.—At the same time steam transport was being made possible on land   The first steam locomotive was made to go along roads in 1803   But in the next year *Trevithick*, its inventor, decided that iron roads were better than stone ones for his iron engine, and so he built the first *rail-road*

But railways could not become common until they could carry goods much more quickly than by road or canal, so as to make up for the extra cost   *George Stephenson* was the engineer who solved this problem, though he was building engines for fifteen years before his famous " Rocket " managed to go at the rate of twenty-nine miles an hour—much faster than anything had ever travelled before, for any long distance.

In 1825 the first passenger railway was opened, running between Stockton and Darlington , and five years later a still more important one was started,

between Liverpool and Manchester, two of the biggest
new manufacturing towns. Since then England has
been covered with railways. Trains which travel
twice as fast as the " Rocket " are quite common,
and in other directions travel and transport have
become quicker still

For a time, after the building of railways, the roads
began to go out of use, but with the invention of
motors all that has been changed again The roads are
now more crowded than they have ever been before.
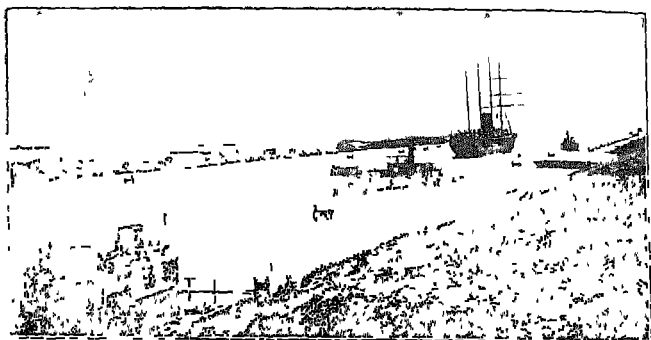
THE SUEZ CANAL
(From Longmans' " Pictorial Geographical Reader Africa ")

There are more railways Most of the old canals are
used as much as ever, and new canals have been built—
some of them, like the *Suez* and the *Panama Canals*,
running from ocean to ocean. And with aeroplane and
airship traffic still increasing, nobody can say that
this part of the Industrial Revolution is finished yet.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIX

1 Find out as much as you can about the following, and then
    write short notes about them —James Brindley, Josiah
    Wedgwood, John L Macadam, Macadamising, Thomas
    Telford, John Metcalf, Henry Bell, George Stephenson,
    Richard Trevithick

2. Make a time chart showing as many dates as you can find about *Travel and Transport in the Industrial Revolution* between 1750 and 1850

3. Questions :—
    (a) How were goods usually carried before the Industrial Revolution ? Why was this ? Why was it unsatisfactory ?
    (b) Why were so many canals built during the Industrial Revolution ? Why are most of them in the Midlands ?
    (c) What was wrong with the roads before the Industrial Revolution ? How were they improved ?
    (d) What were the chief differences between ways of travelling in 1750 and 1850 ?
    (e) What do you know about the following ?—Bridgewater Canal, Grand Trunk Canal, Menai Bridge, the " Comet " ; the " Rocket "

4 Source Exercise :—
    " This *turnpike* is very bad   I know not terms sufficiently impressive to describe this infernal road   Let me most seriously caution all travellers to avoid it as they would the devil, for a thousand to one they may break their necks or their limbs by overthrows or breakings down   They will here meet with *ruts which I actually measured four feet deep* and floating with mud—only after a wet summer, what therefore must it be after a winter ?   *The only mending it receives is the tumbling in some loose stones,* which serve no other purpose but jolting a carriage in the most horrible manner   These are not merely opinions, but facts, for I actually passed three carts broken down in these eighteen miles "   (Young, *A Farmer's Tour*)
    (a) Where was this road ?
    (b) Judging from the ruts, what sort of vehicles would you say used this road ?
    (c) When would this be written ?
    (d) This passage was written by Arthur Young, find out all you can about him
    (e) Write notes on the passages in italics

5 Draw maps showing —
    (a) The chief English canals (if you can, find out which ones were made before 1800, and colour them differently)
    (b) The main railway lines (colour differently the lines constructed before 1850)

6. Find out about any bridges near your home, who buil and when

7. Make models or pictures of any famous modern bridg of older bridges which they replaced

CHAPTER XX

THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION

IN the last three chapters we have been reading about a great change (so great that it is always called a "revolution") which took place in manufacture and industry. At the same time quite as great a change was going on in the country villages, and as it altered all the methods of farming, and even made the villages themselves look quite different, this change is known as the *Agricultural Revolution*.

New Ideas in Farming—We have seen how, in the Middle Ages, and until the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, each village kept pretty much to itself, and very few people ever went far from their homes. But the eighteenth century changed all that, with its new roads and canals and other improvements in transport. One result of this was that people got to know more of what was being done in other places. Consequently, when people in the north and west of England learned that farming was much more profitable in the south and east, they wanted to make their own farming profitable in the same way.

The chief reason why farming was paying better in the counties near London was that, in those counties, there had been more *enclosures* (about which we read in Chapter XII) than anywhere else. In the Midlands and the North, most of the villages still kept to the

Three-field System, and in many ways this was a disadvantage

Disadvantages of the Three-field System.—In the first place, the separate strips, with balks between them, were inconvenient for ploughing, because the plough had to be lifted over every balk   Besides, each man's strips were a long way apart, and much time was wasted in getting from one to another   Weed-seeds blew from the strips of careless farmers on to the strips of farmers who had weeded carefully, and so many men thought it was not worth their while to weed their strips properly

This caused constant quarrels about the three fields, and it was just as bad in the pasture land beyond One man, by being careless about his cattle, might cause all the cattle in the village to catch diseases and die   Clearly a change was needed   Yet who was to begin it ?   Good farmers were not going to take care of their allotments and their cattle when a careless farmer might ruin both , and so farming did not produce nearly as much corn and wool and meat as it might have done

A New Enclosure Movement.—Just at this time more wool was wanted for the machines which had been invented , and more corn and meat were needed to feed the workers in the factories   Besides, the population of this country was growing rapidly, and so something had to be done   At first, some of the lords of the manors began to put fences and hedges around the pasture land and the waste, and even to turn the villagers out of their allotments in the three fields Then they could farm the land as they liked, and make it more profitable by using new improvements which were coming in.   But often the lord of the manor was unfair to the villagers, and did not pay

them enough for the land he was taking from them.
So Acts were passed in Parliament to make this new
enclosure movement lawful. though even then much
injustice was done to the villagers

Still, commons and fields were enclosed and began
to yield bigger harvests and fatter flocks and herds.
For a long time Norfolk farmers had known that the
best way to grow crops was to have in the first year
wheat, in the second year turnips, then barley, then
clover, and then back to wheat again, and so on. This
was called the *four-year rotation,* and as the turnips
and the clover put back into the earth much of the
richness which the corn crops took from it, the crops
were much finer in consequence. During the Agri-
cultural Revolution, after the fields were enclosed, this
Norfolk rotation was taken up almost everywhere,
and the fields produced far more food than before

Cattle Food.—But besides helping to keep the soil
rich, turnips and clover were useful in another way—
for feeding cattle and sheep   Farmers began to pay
more attention to breeding fat animals with plenty
of meat, and this discovery about turnips and clover
helped them a great deal   Till now, there had been very
little food for the cattle in the winter, and so most
of them had to be killed in the autumn and salted
for meat for the next few months   The rest were fed
very poorly, and so never had a chance to get fat

Turnips made all the difference , they can easily
be stored in the winter, and they make splendid food for
cattle   And so cattle could be kept in the winter
and fattened up again in the following year   Salted
meat became less common, and, as too much salt meat
causes scurvy, that was a good thing   But there were
more important results.

Cattle Breeding.—For one thing, the cattle were
so much bigger after the Agricultural Revolution

that there was more fresh meat than ever   Between 1700 and 1800 the average weight of English bullocks went up fiom 370 to 800 lbs , and the average weight of English sheep went up from 28 to 80 lbs   When you think that an ordinary Irish terrier weighs about 28 lbs , you can imagine what sheep looked like two hundred years ago, and what an improvement has been made by the Agricultural Revolution.
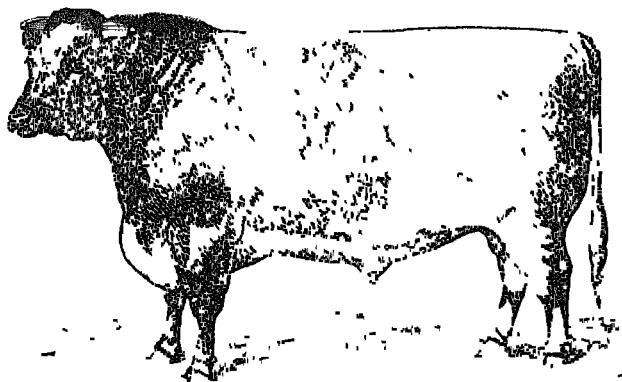
A Modern Prize Bull
(*From Webb's " Advanced Agriculture "*)

Difference between the New and the Old Enclosure Movements.—None of these changes was possible until the fields and waste lands had been enclosed by men who wished to biing in better methods of farming We have already learned about the enclosures which took place in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and the good and bad results which they had.   In the next chapter we shall see the good and bad results of these new enclosures.

But you will have noticed one difference between

6

them. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the
fields were enclosed for rearing sheep, because the
new woollen industry wanted wool   In the eighteenth
century wool was wanted again, for the new machines ,
but food was wanted still more for the factory workers,
and their chief food was corn   So the fields which
were enclosed during the Agricultural Revolution were
mostly given up to corn growing, and not to grass.
Even then English farmers could not produce
enough corn for the English people   But things were
better for a time—much better than if there had been
no Agricultural Revolution

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XX

1 Make a time chart showing as many dates as you can find about
   The Agricultural Revolution between 1700 and 1800

2 Questions :—

   (a) Which part of England was best cultivated and more
       civilised before the Agricultural Revolution ?   Why was
       this ?
   (b) Why was the Agricultural Revolution so long in starting ?
   (c) What were the chief improvements in farming during the
       Agricultural Revolution ?
   (d) What difference did the Agricultural Revolution make to
       people's food ?
   (e) What do you know about the following ?—Enclosures ,
       four-year rotation , root crops , yeomen , Arthur Young ?

3. Source Exercises :—

   (1) " WHEREAS it is found by long experience that common
   or *open fields* are great hindrances to a public good, and the
   honest improvement which every one might make of his own
   diligence   and whereas all or most of the inconveniences
   which usually attend the open *wastes* and *common fields* have
   been fatally experienced at the village of ————, to the
   great discouragement of industry and good husbandry in the
   Freeholders   Be it therefore enacted that a true and exact

survey, plan, and valuation of all the lands to be divided and *enclosed* shall be made " (*Statutes*, 41 *Geo III*, 109)

    (*a*) What do you suppose this is a part of ?
    (*b*) Comment on the words in italics
    (*c*) What is meant by the "great hindrance to a public good," and "the honest improvement which every one might make " ?

(ii) " As for the sheep, they hadn't *such food as they have now* In winter there was little to eat, except what God Almighty sent for them, and when the snow was thick on the ground, they ate the *ling*, or died off Sheep were not of much account then I have known lambs sold at 1s 6d apiece " (Toynbee, *Industrial Revolution*)

    (*a*) What sort of person do you suppose said this, and when ?
    (*b*) Write a few lines explaining what this is about
    (*c*) Comment on the passages in italics

(iii) Write a short note on the following passage —" No fortune will be made in Norfolk by farming, unless a judicious course of crops be pursued That which has been chiefly adopted by the Norfolk farmers is (1) turnips, (2) barley, (3) clover, (4) wheat " (Young, *A Farmer's Tour*)

4. Make a plan of any village you know, as you think it might have appeared before the Agricultural Revolution.

CHAPTER XXI

THE RESULTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTIONS

THE Industrial Revolution changed the whole of British industry, the Agricultural Revolution changed the whole way of tilling the ground and rearing cattle. But the two together did more than this They changed the way in which people lived, the places where they lived and the way in which they earned their livings. After these two revolutions England looked different, and Englishmen lived differently

Changes in the Country.—We have already seen something of the change which came about in the country. Instead of three great fields to each village, and waste land and woodland beyond, there were now scores of fields, all surrounded by hedges or walls, and each field, instead of being shared out among all the villagers, belonged to one man. It is easy to see what a difference that has made to the appearance of our English villages

The villagers lived differently, too. Before the Agricultural Revolution many of the villagers were landowners, with allotments of their own But these small landowners, or yeomen, could not afford the new, expensive methods of farming which were coming in So, if they were not driven from their allotments by an unfair lord of the manor, they often sold their land and became ordinary farm labourers instead.

That is one result of the Agricultural Revolution—most villagers nowadays are labourers, without any land of their own, instead of yeomen, farming for themselves. There are now a few big farms in each village instead of many little ones

As we know, many of the yeomen had gained more money by having spinning wheels and cloth looms in their houses. But now they could no longer do this, as all the cloth was beginning to be made by machinery in the towns. So many of the yeomen left the country altogether and went to work in the towns at a factory, rather than stay as labourers in the village where they had once owned land.

Changes in the Towns.—And in the towns, too, everything was changing. Before the Industrial Revolution there had been no steam and no big machinery. That means that there were no tall chimneys in the towns and no factories—and no smoky slums, where most of the factory workers had to live after the revolution, in order to be near their work. The new machinery made more things for people to buy and it made them cheaper than before. But as the workers had to live in ugly little houses in great ugly districts, the change had caused almost as much harm as good

Nowadays, most towns are crowded with factories and mills where things are being made. In the old days a town was not so much a place where things were *made* (because under the Domestic System things were made in the country as well), as a place where things were *sold*. The market—not, as now, the factories—was the chief place in the town for making money. Naturally, the towns then were much less smoky and much less crowded with people than they are now.

For after the Industrial Revolution the towns were

really overcrowded   As we have learned, the machines
were driven by steam and made of iron, and so the
factories were crowded together in those parts of
England where both coal and iron are found   And
the workers had to crowd together in the same places.
So nowadays the population is greatest around the
coal and iron fields

Changes in Population.—Strangely enough, the
population now is thickest just in those places where,
before the Industrial Revolution, it used to be thinnest.
In the old days the people crowded around London,
the capital of the kingdom and the greatest market town
in the world   And in those days, too, when iron was
made not with coal but with charcoal, most of the
ironworkers lived near the woods of Kent and Sussex,
where fuel was plentiful

But now, except for London (which is still more
crowded than anywhere else), most of the people live
in the Midlands and the North of England   And
Lancashire and Yorkshire, which in the old days
were great rolling moorlands, peopled with a few
shepherds and not much else, are now crowded with
towns   In 1700 only about a quarter of the population
lived north of the Trent, whereas now nearly a half
live there

Besides this, the towns themselves are much bigger.
Two hundred years ago there were not 15,000 people
in Manchester, Liverpool, and Birmingham put to-
gether   Now each one of those cities contains about
1,000,000 inhabitants   And whereas, in 1700, Bristol,
which was the second largest town in England, had
only 30,000 inhabitants, there are now nearly 100
towns bigger than that   And London itself has grown
from a population of half a million to over seven
millions.

This means that since the Industrial Revolution

most of the people of England have been living in towns   Only one person in three now lives in the country, whereas in the early eighteenth century only one person in four lived in a town

This overcrowding was bad, but it could not be helped   Factories had to be near the coalfields, and the workers had to live near the factories   In the nineteenth century that led to terrible overcrowding in the towns, and the slums were very bad indeed Slowly, however, this is being improved   Streets are being made wider, and even the poorest houses are usually built so as to look as pleasant as possible.

Capitalists.—There is one other result of the Industrial Revolution which is not so easy to remedy   We have already learned how, in the country, big farmers took the place of little ones, who became either farm labourers or workmen in the towns   In the towns, too, the same thing happened   In the old days most of the workmen had ended by becoming masters of their business and employing men themselves   But the Industrial Revolution changed all that   Only rich men could afford to buy machinery and run factories, and so the poorer people had to become employees of the great manufacturers   Perhaps that is the worst result of the Industrial Revolution   There were other bad results, but they are gradually being remedied This result has not been remedied , most workmen nowadays are employees all their lives and can never hope to become masters, and it is only the masters (or *Capitalists*, as they are called) who can ever become really rich.

Good and Bad in the Industrial Revolution.—Still, the Industrial Revolution did much good as well as evil   If factories are ugly and dirty they make more things to share amongst all of us   Work is not so

comfortable as it used to be, but most people now can buy more things and have more enjoyments than their ancestors could before the Industrial Revolution. After all, if the growth of towns has stopped us from living in pleasant country, it has given us much in return—plenty of company, theatres, picture palaces, and other amusements, trams and buses to save us the trouble of walking, and altogether much more opportunity to make our lives more interesting and enjoyable, if only we will take that opportunity instead of neglecting it

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXI

1. Why were these movements called " Revolutions " ?

2. What difference did the Agricultural Revolution make to (a) scenery, (b) village life ?

3 What difference did the Industrial Revolution make to (a) the appearance of the towns, (b) life in the towns ?

4 Write compositions on (a) life in your town or village, (b) the appearance of your town or village, in the early eighteenth century.

5 Why do most people now (a) live in a town instead of the country, (b) work for somebody else ?

6. Draw a map of Great Britain, showing by shading where most people lived (a) in 1750, (b) in 1850

7. Find out how many people there were in your town (and other towns near) (a) at the last census, (b) in 1801, (c) about 1700

8 Make a list of (a) the good points, (b) the bad points, of the Industrial and Agricultural Revolutions.

PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE

Smugglers and Customs Duties.—Most of us have read tales about smugglers How many of us have ever noticed that there are smuggling stories about days long past, and smuggling stories about quite recent times, but very few about the later nineteenth and early twentieth centuries ? We shall understand better why this is so when we have read the rest of this chapter

In the old days nearly everything which was imported into this country was taxed—that is, the merchant who imported goods had to pay *customs duties* to the Government for being allowed to do so When he had paid these duties the merchant could not afford to sell his goods as cheaply as he would have done So prices in England were higher because of the customs duties, and what the smugglers did was to get goods into the country secretly without paying duties Then they charged the same price as the merchants who had paid duty, and the smugglers got a bigger profit for themselves.

Protection for Merchants.—This made it necessary for the Government to employ a large number of Coastguards, who were always on the look-out to prevent smuggling It was well worth the Government's while to do this, because of the money which was obtained from the taxes, and which helped to pay for the governing of the country. There was another

reason, besides, why customs duties were kept on.
People used to believe that it was best for a country
to sell as much as it could to foreigners, and to buy
from foreigners as little as possible   Taxes on foreign
goods made it harder to sell them in England
At the same time, such taxes *protected* English
merchants and manufacturers who had the same
goods to sell, because, not having any tax to pay,
they could sell their goods cheaper than foreign
merchants, and so get all the trade from them   For
this reason, having customs duties on imports is called
Protection.

" The Wealth of Nations."—But at the end of the
eighteenth century, Protection was beginning to go out
of fashion   In the year 1776 *Adam Smith*, a professor
at Glasgow University, wrote a book called " The
Wealth of Nations," in which he showed that countries
might gain much by buying one another's goods   For
instance, if Englishmen bought their wines from
France, where good wine could be produced cheaply,
and Frenchmen bought their clothes from England,
where good cloth could be produced cheaply, both of
them would be much better off   But if England tried
to produce its own wines and France to produce its
own cloth, both of them would get inferior stuff instead
of the best
For a long time not much notice was taken of
Smith's teaching, because there were wars with France,
and the Government had no time to think of anything
but fighting   But when peace was made in 1815,
great changes were soon introduced   From 1823 to
1827 the Minister in charge of the *Board of Trade* was
William Huskisson, who lowered the customs duties
which had to be paid on very many kinds of imports.
Thus by 1827 there was far less Protection for English
manufacturers   But there was also far less smuggling,

and it was soon found that foreign merchants, who now sold more of their goods in England because the taxes were low, spent their gains in buying English goods to take back with them And so English traders and manufacturers actually gained, instead of losing, when the customs duties were lowered.

Free Trade.—For this reason the manufacturers came to believe that their trade would be better still if the customs duties were removed altogether—that is, if *Free Trade* were allowed by the Government. They therefore worried the Ministers to take off duty after duty, until there was Free Trade in every important merchandise except one This was corn . the farmers and merchants who dealt in corn still received Protection long after most other customs duties had been removed, and Free Trade in corn was obtained only after a long and difficult struggle

The Corn Laws.—The laws which gave Protection to the farmers, and to the landowners to whom the farmers paid rent, were known as the *Corn Laws*. These laws fixed such high duties on foreign corn that its price was far too great for anybody to pay And as there was not enough English corn to go round, the English farmers, too, charged high prices for their corn The landowners, thinking the farmers could afford it, charged them high rents for their farms. So that the people who gained most by the Corn Laws were the landowners, who were well off already , and the people who suffered most through the Corn Laws were the working classes, who could hardly ever afford to buy wheaten flour, and had to eat rye bread instead

Yet it was very difficult to get Parliament to *repeal* (or " abolish ") the Corn Laws, because most of the Members of Parliament were landowners, who gained

so much from these laws   So some of the manufacturers
decided to compel the Government to allow Free Trade
in Corn, and in 1838 they founded a society called the
Anti-Corn-Law League.   The two chief men in the
Anti-Corn-Law League were *Richard Cobden* and *John
Bright*, both of whom owned large cotton factories in
Lancashire   Under these men as its leaders the league
published magazines and held meetings all over the
country, until the people, and even Members of
Parliament, were persuaded that the Corn Laws must
be abolished.

Peel and Free Trade—The Prime Minister at this
time was *Sir Robert Peel*, who was a landowner, like
most other Members of Parliament.   When he became
Prime Minister (in 1841) he was determined not to
repeal the Corn Laws   But when he saw that the
poorest classes of the people had to pay such high
prices, when their wages were so low, he changed his
mind   First of all he took customs duties off many
sorts of merchandise, and so made prices cheaper
Then, after he had been Prime Minister for five years,
he decided that bread, too, ought to be made cheaper,
especially as a famine in Ireland at this time was causing
great distress among the Irish peasants.   So in 1846
the Corn Laws were repealed, and England became a
really Free Trade country

Advantages and Disadvantages of Free Trade.—It is
easy to see the advantages which England obtained
from this   Foreign goods were cheaper now that
there was no tax to pay, and so the English
merchants had to charge less too   Thus people found
that their money went further than it had done before
there was Free Trade   Besides, more foreigners now
brought their goods to England to sell, and bought
English goods in exchange.   So that trade grew very

quickly indeed, and England was easily the greatest trading country in the world

But Free Trade caused disadvantages as well   It was now seen that English corn cost more to produce than corn from abroad, and the English farmers found that they were not making enough profit   So they took to sheep-rearing instead of growing corn, because sheep need fewer men to look after them than cornfields. More and more land in England became *pasture* instead of *arable* land, and more and more country people were thrown out of work and had to seek employment in the towns

This had several bad results   In the first place, the people were not so healthy now that they were living in overcrowded towns, instead of in the open country   Besides this, there were no longer enough people in England *producing* food, and yet there were more than ever *needing* food   This was not so bad in peace time, because food could be imported from abroad, but in time of war, imports are stopped by the enemy, and the people are in danger of starvation because not enough food is being produced in this country.

During the nineteenth century English statesmen had come to hope that there would be no more great wars, and so they kept to Free Trade   Yet almost every other country still preferred Protection   Even before the war of 1914-19 *Joseph Chamberlain* tried to persuade the English to change back   But it took the war, and the terrible failure of trade which followed, to convince the country that Protection would pay it best.   In 1932 taxes were put on most English imports again, to protect home manufacturers from foreign competition.   However, duties on goods from British lands overseas are less than on foreign goods, and this *Imperial Preference* encourages trade between the various parts of the British Empire.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXII

1 Find out as much as you can about the following, and then write short notes on them —Adam Smith, The Board of Trade, Sir Robert Peel, Cobden, Bright, Joseph Chamberlain

2 Make a time chart to illustrate the history of *Free Trade* and *Protection* since 1750

3 Questions .—
   (a) What connection is there between Free Trade and each of the following ?—Smuggling, prices, wages, farming, war
   (b) Whom does Protection " protect," and how ?
   (c) In what ways does a country benefit by trading with other countries ?
   (d) Which classes wanted Free Trade most, and which wanted it least, in the early part of the nineteenth century ?
   (e) Who suffered most, and who gained most, from the Corn Laws, and how ?
   (f) In what ways did England (i) gain, and (ii) lose by becoming a Free Trade country ?
   (g) What do you know about the following ?—Customs duties, " The Wealth of Nations ", Huskisson, the Corn Laws, the Anti-Corn-Law League

4 Source Exercise — " WHITEHALL,
" 23rd July 1842

   " *Sir Robert Peel*, with his humble duty to Your Majesty, begs leave to acquaint Your Majesty that last night was occupied in the House of Commons with another debate on the *Corn Laws* This debate was entirely confined to those members who act with the *Anti-Corn-Law League* It continued until twelve, when *Mr Cobden*, the Member for Stockport, moved an adjournment of the House " (*Queen Victoria's Letters* By permission of Mr John Murray)

   (a) Why was this letter to Queen Victoria written by Sir Robert Peel ?
   (b) When this letter was written, how long had the Anti Corn-Law League been working ?
   (c) Write notes on the names in italics

The Reform of the Factories and Mines

Evils of the Factory System.—We have seen, in Chapter XXI, how the changes which took place during the Industrial Revolution caused factories to be built all over England, and mines to be sunk to provide the factories with coal. Most of these factories were built in a hurry by manufacturers who wanted to make money quickly, and very often they were cramped, dirty, unhealthy places, nasty to work in, and often causing the workpeople to get diseases of various kinds. Often too, they were badly built, so that they collapsed under the weight of their machines, and injured the workmen. Hardly any of the machines were protected by a guard, and it was quite common for those in charge to be caught in the wheels and either injured or killed.

Besides this, it was customary to work very long hours. As we have seen, the factory owners wanted to make money, and so they tried to get as much work as possible out of their employees. It was not at all unusual for the men to be kept at work from six in the morning till ten o'clock at night—sixteen hours of work, often without a break, even for meals. This was bad enough anywhere, but in the cotton factories of Lancashire it was worse still. In many cotton mills the air has to be kept very warm and very damp, or the cotton is spoilt. This warm, damp atmosphere is very bad for the workers, and in the old days of sixteen

hours' work many of them caught fearful coughs, consumption, and rheumatism, so that before long they either died or became cripples

Worst of all, the women and children suffered from all this just as much as the men, who could stand it better. Their hours were just as long as the men's, they were kept in the same unhealthy rooms and the children especially were given the dullest work to do, since they were not old enough to do the more difficult work There were hardly any schools, so that the children were sent into the factories when they were very young Six was quite a usual age for a boy or girl to be at work for twelve or sixteen hours a day, and in many cases the children were even younger.

Laissez-Faire.—Who was to remedy this state of things ? Most of the factory owners were too keen on their profits to do so Besides, most of the manufacturers believed that it was wrong to interfere, because prices would have to be raised if their employees worked less "Let things alone," they said, "and prices will keep low If we interfere, prices will go up, and the workpeople will be poorer than ever" This doctrine of "letting things alone" is called *laissez-faire* (which is French for "let it alone") It was this idea which caused the manufacturers to resist improvements in their works—which was bad. But we must remember that this idea also caused them to ' let trade alone," and to bring in Free Trade, which at that time was certainly good

Even the workpeople themselves were afraid that any change might make them worse off. It was because they were poor that they allowed their children to go to work , they needed their children's earnings. This is what one Nottingham woman said, when she was asked about it —

" I have three children working in Wilson's mill: one
eleven, one thirteen, and the other fourteen. They
work regular hours there. We don't complain If they go
to drop the hours, I don't know what poor people will do.
I suppose they'll take off the wages as well as the hours.
I'd rather it continued as now. We have hard work to
live, as it is It would make sad work with us. My
husband is of the same mind about it He works in the
mill, and I am winding My husband earns 12s. a week,
I earn 2s, the eldest child 4s 6d, the second child
3s 6d, the third child 2s. 6d Total, £1 4s 6d
Out of this we have to pay house rent, fire and clothes,
and food for six of us."

Lord Shaftesbury and the Factories.—Since the
manufacturers would not, and the workpeople could
not, get matters improved, other people had to try to
do so One or two Acts were passed by Parliament,
saying that women and children were to work shorter
hours, but the factory owners disobeyed these Acts,
and things were as bad as ever Then Lord Ashley
(who later became the *Earl of Shaftesbury*) decided to
devote his life to improving the lives of the factory
workers It was through him that fresh Factory Acts
were passed and had to be obeyed, and to him, more
than to any other single man, the workers of England
ought to be grateful for the better conditions in which
they now work

Shaftesbury worked so hard that before long he
made the whole country interested in the hardships of
the factory workers A special inquiry was started,
and factories and workers all over England were
examined by the agents of the Government It was
to these agents that the Nottingham woman spoke
the words which we have just read, and there was
so much similar distress all over the country that the
first really important *Factory Act* was passed in 1833.
This Act said that no children under nine years of

age were to work in factories at all , children under
thirteen were not to work more than forty-eight hours
a week , all of them had to be passed by a doctor
before they could be employed in a factory , and all
of them were to go to school for at least two hours a
week.

To us such regulations seem hard enough   But to
the working children of those days they were a great
improvement on what they were used to.   Besides,
this Act of 1833 appointed four inspectors to go amongst
the factories and see that the Act was being obeyed
Four were not enough, of course, but before long the
number of inspectors was increased, and this Act was
obeyed much better than previous ones.

The Mines.—No sooner had Shaftesbury begun to
improve the factories than he turned his attention to
the mines, where things were just as bad.   Another
special inquiry was started, and it was found that
women and children in the mines (just as in the
factories) were having to do the worst parts of the work
It was they who had to pull the truck-loads of coal
which the miners had hewn, and it was the children
(some of them as young as four years of age) who were
sent to cut coal from the lowest passages, which were
too small for the men, and which were often even
damper and more dangerous than the rest of the mine
Consequently, women and children alike became bent
and crippled while they were still quite young.   This
was just the sort of thing that Shaftesbury was
determined to improve, and in 1842 a *Mines Act* was
passed, forbidding all women, and all children under
ten years of age, to work underground

The lot of the working classes was still far from
perfect, but by 1842 it was much improved   Other
improvements soon began to follow   In 1844 a Factory
Act fixed twelve hours as the longest working day

for all women, and all young people under eighteen, and six and a half hours for children   At the same time it compelled all factory owners to guard their machinery to prevent accidents   Three years later another Factory Act reduced this working day to ten hours instead of twelve.

Employers and Injured Workmen.—All these Acts were for the protection of women and children—not of men.   But shorter hours have been obtained for the men by their *Trade Unions*, about which we shall read in another chapter (Chapter XXVI), and other Acts of Parliament have benefited men, women, and children alike.   The chief of these are the *Employers' Liability Act* of 1880, and the *Workmen's Compensation Act* of 1897, by which employers are made to pay compensation to employees who are injured while doing their work

National Insurance.—Finally, in 1911, the *National Insurance Act* was passed, chiefly owing to *Mr Lloyd George*, who was then Chancellor of the Exchequer This Act compelled workpeople to save part of their earnings, to use when they were ill or out of work , and it compelled employers as well to pay money, which the Government gave to the workpeople, with their own savings, when they needed it

Thus it took nearly a hundred years to remedy the worst faults caused by the Industrial Revolution Factories were still unpleasant, and they helped to make our towns unpleasant too   But the Factory and Mines Acts of the last hundred years made things far better than they were when the Industrial Revolution had only just begun

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXIII

1 Make a time chart to illustrate *the Reform of the Factories and Mines*

2. Questions :—

    (a) What were the chief evils in factories and mines in the early part of the nineteenth century ?

    (b) Why were children allowed to work in mines and factories, and what was their work like ?

    (c) Write an account of a day in your life, as it would have been if you were working in a mine or factory before 1833

    (d) What was *laissez-faire* ? In what ways was it good, and in what ways bad ?

    (e) What were the chief Factory and Mines Acts, and what did each of them say ?

    (f) What do you know about the following ?—Lord Shaftesbury, factory inspectors, employers' liability, workmen's compensation, National Insurance

3 Source Exercises —

    (i) " I worked at Mr Swaine's, at Little Gomersall, near Leeds   I earned 2s 6d a week, from six to half past seven   I began when I was six years old   I came to Leicester about three years ago   I came as a spinner. I earn 24s or 25s a week, taking full work   Mr Swaine's was a bad factory for cruelty to children in my time   I have marks on me now from ill-treatment that I got there   They would strike us with the billy roller over the head   I have a bump on my head now, from that   I have begun at five in the morning and worked till half past ten at night   This would be when orders came "

    This was said by Mr Josiah Barker, of Leicester

    (a) To whom do you suppose it was spoken, and when ?

    (b) Who were responsible for allowing young Josiah Barker to be treated in this way ? Why did they allow it ?

    (c) What was done to remedy the sort of thing described in this passage, by whom, and when ?

    (ii) " After the passing of this Act it shall not be lawful for any owner of any mine or colliery whatsoever to employ any female person within any mine or colliery   .

    " It shall not be lawful for any owner of any mine or colliery to employ any male person under the age of ten years . . "
(Statutes, 5 and 6 Vic , 99)

    (a) Where do you suppose this passage is taken from ?

    (b) Why were these rules necessary ? To whom do they apply, and to whom do they *not* apply ?

CHAPTER XXIV

Towns in the Nineteenth Century

We have already learnt (Chapter XXI) that until the eighteenth century London was the only big English town   Only a few towns had more than ten or twenty thousand inhabitants, and these few were nearly all in the southern half of England   The Industrial Revolution, however, caused a great flow of population to the north, this caused many northern villages to swell into towns, and in some cases (of which Middlesborough is the best example) great towns have sprung up where there was, before, nothing more than a few houses

Mayors and Corporations.—Even the older towns had grown anyhow, and there was no fixed way of choosing the *Mayors* and *Corporations* which governed them   In many towns the members of the corporation thought more about making their own fortunes at the town's expense, than of arranging what was best for the townspeople   Very often these corporations were descended from the medieval merchant gild of the town, and so they were more concerned with their own trade than with governing the town properly   Sometimes, too, the members of the corporation took for themselves the town money, which ought to have been spent in improving the town itself

It was this state of things which led the Government to pass the *Municipal Reform Act* in 1835   This Act
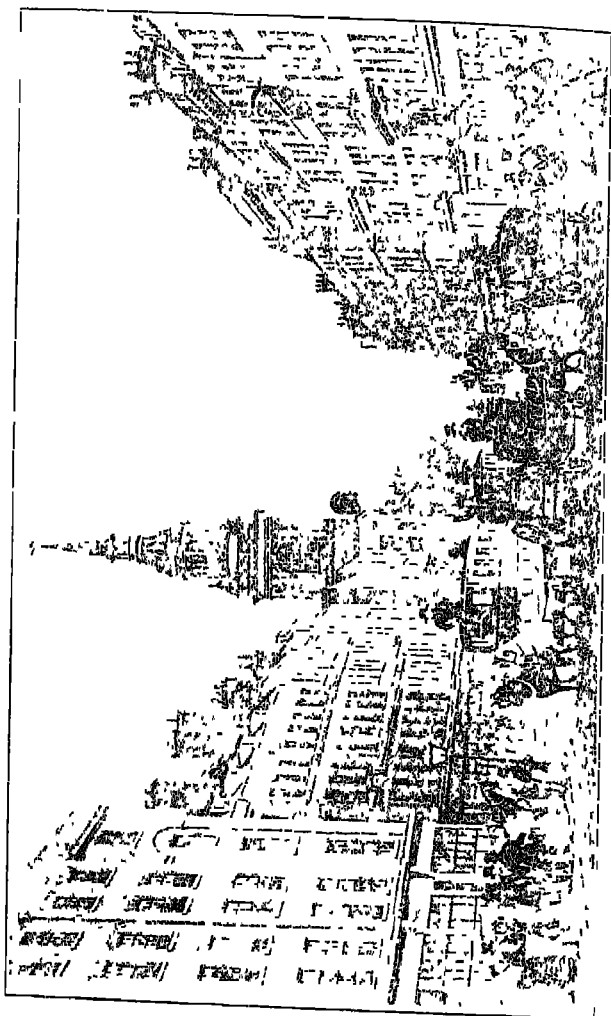
CHEAPSIDE (LONDON) IN THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY.
(For views of the same street at other periods, see pages 79, 133, and 187.)
(*From an old Print.*)

declared that in future all towns must be governed in
the same way—by a mayor and corporation But the
corporation (or *Town Council*) was to be elected (at
elections which are held every November) by the
townspeople themselves and so the townspeople can
remove from the corporation any *Councillor* who is
unsatisfactory, simply by voting against him at
the next election The Municipal Reform Act also
ordered that the corporations should elect senior
councillors called *Aldermen*, and a mayor to direct
them all. Within two or three years of this Act,
town councils and mayors were appointed by many
towns which, till then, had had no proper government
at all

Slums.—Since the passing of this Act, town councils
have watched carefully over the growth of their towns
At first, they had a terrible task In most towns, houses
had been built in great numbers near the factories—
all huddled together in *slums* in the centre of the town,
Most of these houses were too small. Many were
what are known as *back-to-back houses*—that is, there
is no connection between the back and the front of
each house, and different families live in the two
parts

All this was very unhealthy, and it was made worse
by dirtiness Very few houses had water-taps, even in
a back yard Instead, water had often to be fetched
some distance, sometimes from a dirty stream Even
the largest houses rarely had baths There were no
proper sewers—only gutters where filth collected easily
Pig styes were often to be seen quite close to the house
kitchens It is not surprising, therefore, that fevers
were constantly breaking out Smallpox, typhoid
fever, and cholera carried off thousands of people,
simply because the town governments had not dis-
covered that disease is spread by dirt.

Public Health.—Still, most of the new town councils were willing to do what they could, if only they had known what was best to do So in 1848 a *Public Health Act* was passed, establishing a *General Board of Health* in London, whose duty it was to encourage towns to arrange themselves more cleanly and healthily In less than five years, over eighty towns had Boards of Health of their own After that public health improved rapidly Another important Public Health Act was passed in 1875, and in 1917 a *Minister of Health* was appointed for the first time—a member of the Government, whose chief task is to safeguard the health of the people

Even before 1835 and 1848 some towns had tried to make improvements One of the first was Liverpool, which, in 1794, erected the first *Public Baths* There is no big town in the country to-day without public baths , but the baths of Liverpool are still the finest of them all, since Liverpool has taken a pride in beating the other towns in this respect.

The Water Supply.—But before healthy towns were possible, drinking water, as well as washing water, had to be provided We should be astonished if we could see the sort of water which townspeople regularly drank a century ago In London, for example, some of the drinking water was taken from the Thames just below the place where several sewers were emptied into the river So that London, with its sewers, was worse off than many towns with no sewers at all

Glasgow was the first town to seek its water supply from a distant lake, out in the clean air of the mountains Loch Katrine was made into a reservoir for Glasgow in 1856 , twenty years later Manchester did the same with Thirlmere, in the Lake District , in 1877 Liverpool began to draw its water from the Welsh Lake Vyrnwy :

and in 1893 Birmingham started to make an artificial lake of her own in Radnorshire, and this has supplied most of her water since 1904 Other towns have followed these examples, and those without natural reservoirs obtain pure water from *artesian wells*, which are holes bored to a great depth in the earth, and through which the water forces itself upwards.

Water supply is only one of many things which occupy a modern town council In many towns the gas as well as the electricity is supplied by the corporation Trams are connected with electricity, buses are connected with trams, and both trams and buses nowadays usually belong to the town council.

Going to Business.—The development of tram and bus services has had a peculiar effect, which has been helped by the invention of bicycles, motor bicycles, and motor cars These means of getting about from place to place have made it possible for even poor people to live a long way from their business. and consequently, the centres of our towns are becoming less crowded People prefer to live just outside in the *suburbs* , and often, although they make their money in the town, they pay house rates to their *Urban District Council* instead of to the town council. It is, of course, the rates which pay for everything which the councils see fit to do

Besides all this, the happiness of the townspeople has to be considered Apart from the theatres and picture palaces, which belong to private people and have to be paid for separately, there are public *parks* (often with concerts in summer), *libraries*, and *art galleries*, provided out of the rates by the town corporation

The Police.—No town could be well conducted, and its citizens could not be happy or even safe, if order and

quiet were not well kept, and this, of course, is the work of the *Police Force*. It was in 1829 that *Sir Robert Peel*, the Home Secretary, had an Act passed establishing the *Metropolitan Police Force* in the London district. Before then there had been nothing better than *watchmen*, who went round at night to see that nothing was

WEOLEY HILL, BOURNVILLE, BIRMINGHAM
Illustrating the planning of a modern manufacturing town.
(By permission of Messrs Cadbury Brothers Limited.)

wrong, but who had no special training (see Chapter IX) Other towns soon followed London's example, and had police forces of their own—usually with Fire Brigades connected with them. In 1856 another Act compelled the counties, as well as the towns, to employ policemen, and to-day the English police force is the finest in the world

Town Planning.—In quite modern times, towns have paid most attention to *Town Planning*—that is, to arranging the streets and buildings of the town so as to be as convenient and beautiful as possible, with plenty of open spaces to provide fresh air   Until the end of the nineteenth century towns were allowed
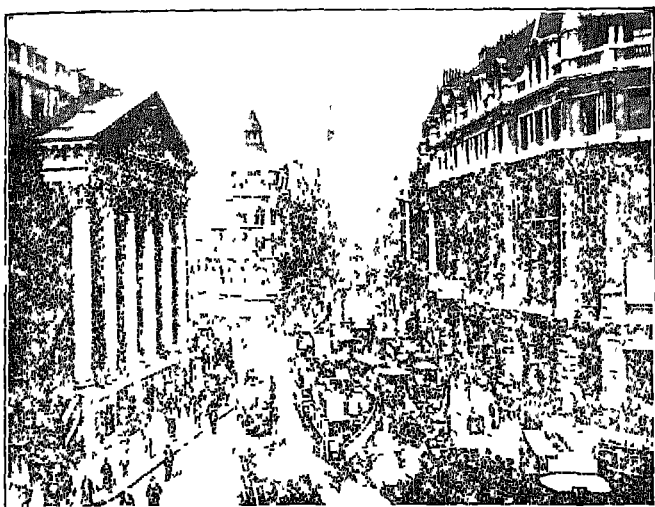
CHEAPSIDE (LONDON) TO-DAY

(For views of the same street at earlier periods, see pages 79, 133, and 182)

to expand anyhow   Consequently, streets were often winding and ugly, and crowded slums grew up in every town   In America, where most towns are very new, they were planned, from the first, much more conveniently, with parallel streets in which it is very difficult to lose one's way   New town districts in England are now being built in much the same manner , and the older parts of towns are being improved.   The

Town Planning Act of 1909 ordered all towns giadually
to clear away their worst slums, and forbade builders
to erect any more back-to-back houses

Since then there has been much progiess   Model
villages and garden cities are becoming more and
more common, and every town is year by year im-
proving its appearance, its health, and the happiness
of its citizens.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXIV

1. Make a time chart to illustrate the development of towns in the
   nineteenth century

2. Questions .—

   (a) How were towns affected by the Industrial Revolution ?
   (b) What was the Municipal Reform Act, and what faults did
   it remedy ?
   (c) How is a modern town governed ?   Who chooses its govern-
   ment, and how ?
   (d) What are the chief duties of a modern town corporation,
   and how are its expenses paid ?
   (e) What do you know about the health of towns in the early
   nineteenth century ?   How has it been improved ?
   (f) In what different ways is the health of a modern town
   safeguarded ?
   (g) In every town, about nine o'clock in the morning, there are
   streams of people " going to business " (i) How long
   has this been usual ? (ii) What caused it ? (iii) How
   does it affect town life ?
   (h) Write a short account of the history of the police force.
   (i) Make a list of urban districts bordering on your town
   (j) What do you know about town planning ?   How is it carried
   out ?
   (k) What do you know about the following ?—Aldermen, town
   councils, " back-to back " houses, Public Health Acts,
   General Board of Health, Loch Katrine, Thirlmere,
   Lake Vyrnwy, artesian wells, suburbs, urban district
   councils, Sir Robert Peel

3. Source Exercises :—

(1) " Be it enacted, that in every borough shall be elected
. . one fit person, who shall be called ' *the Mayor* ' of such
borough , and a certain number of fit persons, who shall be
called ' *Aldermen* ' of such borough , and a certain other
number of fit persons, who shall be called the ' *Councillors* '
of such borough , and such Mayor, Aldermen, and Councillors
for the time being shall be called the ' *Council* ' of such
borough

" And be it enacted, that upon the *first day of November*
1836, and in every succeeding year, one third part of the
councillors of every borough shall go out of office

" Certain boroughs of large population should be divided
into *wards*, before any election of councillors for such boroughs
should take place " (*Statutes, 5 and 6 William IV* , 76)

   (a) From what Act are these passages taken ? Why was
        this Act necessary, and what changes did it
        make ?
   (b) What is meant in this Act by " fit persons " ?
   (c) Describe how town councils are chosen
   (d) Why do only a third of the councillors retire each
        year ?
   (e) Write notes on the words in italics.

(11) " Whereas offences against property have of late
increased in and near the *Metropolis* , and the local establish-
ments of *Nightly Watch* and *Nightly Police* have been found
inadequate to the prevention and detection of crime . .

" Be it enacted, that the whole of the city and liberties
of Westminster, and such of the *parishes*, townships, precincts,
and places in the counties of Middlesex, Surrey, and Kent as
are enumerated in the *schedule* to this Act, shall be constituted
.   into one district, to be called ' *The Metropolitan Police
District* ' , and a sufficient number of fit and able men shall
from time to time   be appointed as a *Police Force* for
the whole of such district, who shall be *sworn in* by one of the
said *Justices* to act as *constables* for preserving the peace, and
preventing robberies and other *felonies*, and *apprehending*
offenders against the peace " (*Statutes,* 10 *Geo IV* , 44)

   (a) From what Act is this taken ? Why was it necessary ?
        To what district did it apply ? What improvements
        did it make ?

(b) Through what great statesman was this Act passed?
What position did he hold in the Government (i) at
this time, (ii) later? How is his name commemo-
rated in names by which policemen are sometimes
called?

(c) When was this Act extended to the whole country?

(d) Write notes on the words in italics

4 Draw maps or plans of —

(a) The centre of your town (i) as it is now, (ii) as it might
be improved, (iii) showing any recent improvements.

(b) Your town, marking all the open spaces.

CHAPTER XXV

THE RELIEF OF THE POOR

PERIODS when great changes are going on are always harder for poor people than for anybody else   Sometimes the very changes which will help to make the nation more prosperous, at first make the poor less prosperous   This was so in the sixteenth century, when (as we saw in Chapter XII) enclosures and rising prices made it very difficult for the lowest classes to live in comfort   Before long, therefore, the Government began to realise that, since the poor were suffering so that the State might become richer, therefore the State ought to help them in their troubles.

The Poor Law of 1601.—For this reason the *Poor Law of* 1601 was passed at the end of Elizabeth's reign   In order to find money for helping the poor, it commanded that the people of every parish should contribute to a *Poor Rate*, which the churchwardens were to collect   With this money they were to assist those who were too old or too ill to work , those who wanted work, but could not obtain it, were to be employed and paid by the parish , and those who refused to work were to be sent to prison   The Poor Rate was also to be used for children who wished to become apprenticed to a trade, but could not find the money for this themselves

This Act of 1601 was one of the most important ever passed to deal with *Poor Relief*—that is, the assistance

of those in poverty. It showed that the Government realised that truly poor people ought to be helped by those who were more fortunate, helped to work, if possible, if not, helped to live until they could find work But it also showed that those who were poor because they were lazy were to be treated very severely.

Tramps and Acts of Settlement.—After 1601 things were less difficult than they had been Still, there were plenty of poor people, so many that each parish tried to get rid of as many as possible, in order to avoid paying for them Consequently, poor people often wandered from parish to parish, and if they were not allowed to live in any one parish for the forty days which were necessary by law, they were never entitled to relief from anywhere. So they became *vagrants*, or *vagabonds*, that is, " tramps."

In order to remedy this, the first *Act of Settlement* was passed in 1662, which said that all " vagrants " should be sent back to their native place. In one way this was good—it made the " vagrant " sure of his poor relief But it also prevented the unemployed from leaving their homes to find work in other villages or towns, and in this way it prevented poverty from being lessened

Unions and Workhouses.—Sixty years later it was still difficult for the parishes to pay for work for paupers So in 1722 an Act was passed, allowing parishes to join together and form *Unions*. Each of these unions was to maintain a *Workhouse*, and no pauper who refused to work in the workhouse (or pass the *workhouse test*, as it was called), was to be granted relief These " unions " of parishes still exist, and often the work-houses themselves are called " unions."

The Poor Law made Easier.—Thus, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Poor Law was stricter

than ever. By the end of the century, however, the
Industrial Revolution was in full swing . prices were
rising far more rapidly than wages, and machinery
was causing much unemployment   Distress among
the poor was so great that the Poor Law was made
easier. *Gilbert's Act*, in 1782, ordered that " able-
bodied " poor should be given work near their homes,
and that only the aged and infirm should have to
go to the workhouses   In 1795 the magistrates of
Berkshire, meeting at *Speenhamland*, came to a decision
which set an example of leniency to the whole country.
This decision was to guarantee good wages to all men,
whether employed or out of work, and to let these
wages rise as much as prices

At this time, and for another twenty years, England
was at war with Napoleon and the French, and Gilbert's
Act and the Speenhamland decision helped to lighten
the distress which was caused by the war and by the
Industrial Revolution   But it is easy to see how
laziness would be encouraged. Men who were sure of
wages anyhow would not bother to work for them,
and within a few years the parishes were everywhere
paying far more poor relief than they could afford.

New Poor Laws, 1834 and 1928.—It was this which
caused the *Poor Law Amendment Act* of 1834 to be
passed. By this Act the Poor Law was made strict
again   *Out-relief* (that is, payment of relief to paupers
in their own homes, instead of in the workhouses) was
forbidden, unless the consent of two magistrates was
obtained   The parishes were once again to grant
relief through their unions and workhouses, and each
union was to be governed by a *Board of Guardians*
These Guardians were to be elected by the ratepayers
whose money they spent

The Poor Law of 1834 remained in force for nearly
a century, although changes were really needed much

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earlier.   Guardians were elected by the parishes, and
not like members of Parliament, yet they had to carry
out a Poor Law which Parliament had passed   Besides
this, the Ministry of Health, and sometimes, too, the
Ministry of Labour, could interfere with the Guardians
In 1928, therefore, a *Local Government Act* was passed
handing over the duties of the Guardians to the Town
and County Councils from 1930 onwards

This is not the only way in which the lot of the
poor was much improved early in the twentieth
century   In 1908 a law was passed providing *Old
Age Pensions* for everybody over seventy years of age.
In 1909 *Labour Exchanges*, or *Employment Exchanges*,
were established to help employers to find men, and
workers to find employment, as quickly as possible.
The *National Insurance Act* of 1911 made unemploy-
ment and sickness less dreadful for the poor by enabling
them to save money, and by guaranteeing that they
shall never be quite penniless   In 1925 an Act was
passed giving pensions at the age of sixty-five to all
contributors to the National Insurance, and even before
that age to women whose husbands have died and left
them poor   Since then other Acts have made these
pensions and unemployment payments better still

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXV

1 Make a time chart to illustrate the history of the Poor Law
    since 1600

2 Questions —
    (*a*) Why was a new Poor Law necessary in 1601 ?
    (*b*) What were the terms of the Poor Law of 1601, and why
         was it important ?
    (*c*) What were the Acts of Settlement, and why were they
         necessary ? What good and what harm did they do ?
    (*d*) Into what different classes does the Poor Law divide poor
         people ?
    (*e*) Why was the Poor Law made easier at the end of the
         eighteenth century ? What were the good and the bad
         results of this ?

(*f*) What do you know about the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834 ? Why did the Poor Law need " amendment " and how was it amended ?

(*g*) How was the lot of the poor improved during the first quarter of the twentieth century ?

(*h*) What do you know about the following ? — Poor Relief, Out-Relief, Unions, Workhouses, Guardians, Gilbert's Act, Speenhamland, Poor Rate, Employment Exchanges, National Insurance, Old Age Pensions

3. Source Exercises —

(1) " Be it enacted—that the *churchuardens* of every *parish* and four, three, or two substantial householders, shall be called Overseers of the Poor of the same parish , and they . . shall take order from time to time, with the consent of two or more *justices of the peace*, for setting to work . . all such persons, married or unmarried, as, having no means to maintain them, use no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by , and also to raise by *taxation* of every inhabitant and every occupier of lands in the said parish a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other stuff to set the poor to work, and also competent sums of money for the necessary relief of the lame, impotent, old, blind, and such other among them, being poor and not able to work, and also for the putting out of such children to be *apprentices*

" And the said justices of peace, or any of them, to send to the house of correction, or common gaol, such as shall not employ themselves to work, being appointed thereto as aforesaid

" And the justices of peace . shall *rate* every parish to such a weekly sum of money as they shall think convenient " (*Statutes of the Realm,* Vol IV , Part II , pages 962-3.)

(*a*) From what Act is this passage taken ?
(*b*) Make a numbered list of the provisions of this Act
(*c*) What was to be done with the " flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other stuff " ?
(*d*) What part of speech is the word *rate* in the last line but one ? Why are payments to the parish still called *rates*, whereas payments to the State are called *taxes* ? Find out the exact meaning of both these words
(*e*) Write notes on the words in italics.

(ii) " And be it further enacted, that where any parishes shall be united . . for the administration of the laws for the relief of the poor, a *Board of Guardians* of the poor for such *Union* shall be constituted and chosen, and the *workhouse* or workhouses of such Union shall be governed, and the relief of the poor in such Union shall be administered, by such Board of Guardians, and the said Guardians shall be elected by the *ratepayers* "   (*Statutes, 4 and 5 William IV*, 76)

(*a*) From what Act is this passage taken ?

(*b*) Is there anything in this passage which is not contained in passage No (i) ?   Explain the reason for your answer

(*c*) How long did this Act remain law ?

(*d*) Write notes on the words in italics.

CHAPTER XXVI

The Meaning of "Labour" and "Capital."—If we like, we can divide people into two classes—those who work for others, and those who have others working for them, or, in other words, those who are employees and those who are employers. No one can afford to be an employer unless he has saved a good deal of money. Money which has been saved is called *Capital*, and so employers are often called *Capitalists*, or "owners of capital." Sometimes the word "Capital" is used to mean all the capitalists put together; and so when we hear people talking of "Capital" and "Labour," we know that they mean "employers" and "employed."

At first, under the factory system, employers and employed did not get on well together. As we have seen (Chapter XXIII), the employers made their workpeople work too hard, and the Factory Reform Acts had to be passed. But the Factory Reform Acts brought much more benefit to women and children than to men, and long after it was illegal for women and children to work more than ten hours a day, men were allowed to work as long as their employers kept them.

Wages and Prices.—Often, too, their wages were very small. We have already learned (page 177) of a man who, in 1833, was earning 12s. a week, and lower wages than this were quite common. At this time the ordinary two-pound loaf was costing about 5d., and

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we need only compare these figures with the wages and prices of to-day, to see how hard it was, at that time, for the working classes to buy what they needed, without even thinking of luxuries.

The Factory Acts made no regulations about wages. The doctrine of *Laissez-faire* said that it was best to leave the workmen and their masters to settle such things by themselves   But those who believed in *Laissez-faire* forgot that the masters had plenty of capital whereas the workers had none   If a workman refused to work for low wages, he had nothing to live on , whereas, if an employer refused to pay high wages, he could afford to wait until the workmen were willing to take what he offered them

Thus we see that the workers could not bargain for better wages, because they had no money to fall back upon   Their only hope of forcing the employers to pay them proper wages was by banding themselves together, instead of bargaining with the employers man by man   At first this was impossible, because there were laws which forbade workmen to form societies, either for raising wages or for shortening the working day

Trade Unions. —These laws were called the *Combination Acts*, because they made it illegal for workmen to *combine* for their own benefit. The first thing to do was to get these Acts repealed.   The leader of the workmen in this was *Francis Place*, and after years of agitation he persuaded the Government to repeal the Combination Acts in 1824.   Since then, combinations of workmen (or *Trade Unions*, as they are now called) have been lawful , and it is these Trade Unions which have gradually improved wages and brought into fashion a shorter working day

Strikes.—In recent years, employers have been more willing to make things easier for their work·

people, because they have found that contented employees do better work than tired, discontented ones. But at first the workers had to fight for every privilege—usually by going on *strike* that is, by all refusing to work until the employer agreed to what they asked Some employers were frightened by these strikes, and gave way But others decided to fight the workmen, and when the workers in one factory threatened to strike, all the employers in the district would threaten to *lock out* the workmen in all their factories, and throw them out of work. Thus strikes often led to *lock-outs*, and the workmen were as badly off as ever

This made it necessary for the workers to unite in many districts, in order to fight together against the employers By the end of the century all the Trade Unions, of all the trades in the country, were ready to fight on behalf of one another Every year since 1897 there have been meetings of the *Trades Unions Congress*, at which members of all Trade Unions discuss their grievances, and consider how to amend them Sometimes, when the workers in one trade are on strike, the other unions give money to help to keep them while they are out of work On several occasions the Trade Unions Congress has threatened to cause a *General Strike* of all the workpeople in the country, and so compel the Government to put right what they consider to be unfair But the only time the General Strike has been tried so far (in 1926), it failed completely, and was stopped in less than a fortnight

The Labour Party.—The Trade Unions exist for other purposes, besides fighting for better wages and easier work They contribute money to a *political fund*, which pays the expenses of Members of Parliament belonging to the *Labour Party*. The Labour Party spends its time in Parliament in trying to improve the lot of the workmen by peaceful methods—especially by

getting popular new laws passed and unpopular old laws abolished Besides this, the Trade Unions have funds for helping their members during unemployment, for helping the widows and children of workmen who have died, and so on

So far we have been considering the struggle between " Labour and Capital," and we have seen how the workpeople have managed to get much of what they have wanted, in the way of wages and shorter hours But there was another struggle in the nineteenth century—between *consumers* (or the people who buy goods) and *producers* (who sell them). The Industrial Revolution had not been going on long when people began to think that unfair profits were being made. It was soon seen, however, that it was not the manufacturers who were making these profits, but the *middlemen* who bought goods from the manufacturers and sold them again to those who wanted them.

Co-operative Societies.—Again, it was the working people who suffered most, because, being poor, they could not afford to pay high prices So in 1844, twenty-eight working men in Rochdale joined together to form a *co-operative society* " Co-operation " means " working together," and they did this by being their own middlemen—that is, they bought goods direct from the manufacturers, and sold them again to themselves in their own little shop.

To start with they had only £28—£1 apiece , and they bought and sold nothing but sugar, butter, flour, and oatmeal. But others soon joined them : within a year they had £181 ; by 1850 they had £2,300 , and by 1860 their capital amounted to £37,000

This was a wonderful development, and it was due to the workers realising how much they could gain by co-operation Every year the profits made in the co-operative store were divided (and so they were called

dividend) among the members, in proportion to the amount of money each had spent   Thus a member who had spent £10 in a quarter got twice as much dividend as one who had spent £5, and so on   Members could please themselves whether they spent their dividend, or left it in the store bank   Many of them chose to
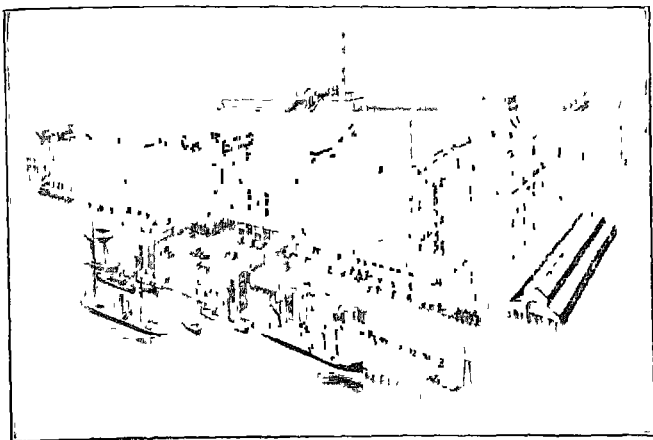
A C W S FLOUR MILL, MANCHESTER

(One of over 100 factories owned by the Co operative Wholesale Society)
(*By permission of the Co operative Press Agency*)

save it, and so thrift was encouraged among the working-class members of the store.

Other co-operative stores soon began to grow up in other towns, until there are now about 1,400 different societies, with four million members between them. Every year they sell about 150 million pounds worth of goods

All these societies have a sort of head society of their own, called the *Co-operative Wholesale Society*, which

7 A

was established in 1863   Each local Co-operative Society pays a subscription to the Co-operative Wholesale Society, buys its goods from it, and receives dividend on its purchases, just as its own members receive dividends for the money they spend   The Co-operative Wholesale Society owns over 100 factories which make goods solely for the various retail societies , and it has tea plantations in Ceylon, farms in England and the colonies, and even a bank of its own   All this mighty organisation has developed from the tiny store with twenty-eight members, established in Toad Lane, Rochdale, in 1844.

Friendship between " Labour " and " Capital."— The Co-operative movement has been a peaceful way of avoiding unpleasantness over the sale of goods. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, peaceful ways of avoiding unpleasantness between employers and workpeople began to be found   It was discovered that men, working hard for eight hours a day, usually did more than men who went on until they were tired out. So eight hours has become the usual length of the working day, although the law allows most employers to keep their workmen for ten hours a day, if they wish to do so.

Similarly, employers have realised that if their work-people have pleasant homes, and something to interest them during their leisure hours, they are happier and work better   For this reason some firms have built *model villages* for their employees, with comfortable houses and pretty streets.   The best-known of these model villages are *Bournville,* where Cadbury's chocolate and cocoa are made, and *Port Sunlight,* the soap town.

There are other model villages besides these, and even where it is impossible to build a whole village, many firms nowadays provide their workers with a *Welfare Club*   Here there are usually playing fields, tennis courts, and so on, for the athletes ; a library for

those who want books to read , billiard and chess
rooms , and other things to provide healthy recreation.

Some firms have even gone further than that, by
allowing their workers to share either in the control of
the business, or in the profits which it makes   Em-
ployees are sometimes allowed to help in the manage-
ment, and this is called *Labour Co-partnership*.   Other
businesses have *Profit-Sharing*, so that the employees
are better off when the business is prospering   In both
cases the workers are encouraged to take a real interest
in their work, and so there is less trouble between them
and their employers

Joint Stock Companies—All this sort of thing has
been made much easier by a change which has taken
place in the employers themselves   A hundred, and
even fifty, years ago, most businesses had one man at
the head, and he was the owner of the whole business
Nowadays, the manager, or managing director, is an
employee like those who are under him , he is the chief
of the workers, and he earns more money only because
his work is more responsible   In large businesses
to-day the owners are *shareholders*—that is, people
(thousands of them, very often) who have *invested* money
in the business, and who, therefore, share the profits.
A business like this with many shareholders is called a
Joint Stock Company, because the *Stock* (or " shares ')
is owned jointly by a number of people   These share-
holders hardly ever see the employees, and never inter-
fere in their work.   That is done by the manager, who
is an employee himself, and so he is perhaps less likely
to annoy his fellow-employees, or be annoyed by them,
than a single man owning the whole business would be.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXVI

1. Find out as much as you can about the following, and then write short notes on them —Francis Place , the Co-operative Wholesale Society , Model Villages

2 Make time charts to illustrate the history in the nineteenth century, of (a) Trade Unions and Strikes , (b) Co-operation.

3 Questions :—

   (a) What do you understand by *Capital* and *Labour* ?
   (b) What benefits did workpeople obtain from the Factory Acts ? Why were those Acts not enough by themselves ?
   (c) Compare the price of bread in 1833 (page 197) with its price now   Then, assuming that the prices of other things have changed in the same proportion, make a list showing how a workman would spend a weekly wage of twelve shillings in 1833
   (d) In what way was *Laissez-faire* unjust to the working classes ?
   (e) What are the arguments for and against a General Strike ?
   (f) Write an account of the Co operative Movement during the last one hundred years
   (g) Show how industry has gained since 1800 by (i) disagreements, and (ii) agreements between employers and employees
   (h) What do you know of the following ?—*Laissez-faire* , Combination Acts, Trade Unions, Strikes, Lock-Outs, Trade Unions Congress, Political Fund, Consumers, Producers, Dividend, Welfare Clubs, Labour Co-partnership, Profit-sharing; Joint Stock.

4 Source Exercise .—

   "*Journeymen*, workmen, or other persons who shall enter into any *combination* to obtain an advance, or to fix the rate of wages, or to lessen or alter the hours or duration of the time of working   . shall not therefore be subject or liable to any *indictment* or *prosecution* for conspiracy   under the common or the statute law

   "And be it further enacted that masters, employers, or other persons who shall enter into any combination to lower or to fix the rate of wages, or to increase or alter the hours or duration of the time of working . . shall not therefore be subject or liable to any indictment or prosecution." (*Statutes*, 5 *Geo IV* , 95.)

(a) From what Act is this passage taken ? What alteration did it make in the law, and why ?

(b) Considering that these two clauses use almost the same words about workmen and masters, do you think the Act was equally fair to both ? Give reasons for your answer

(c) What is meant by " combinations " (i) of workmen, (ii) of masters ? Give present-day examples of each

(d) What is the difference between the " common law " and "statute law " ? To which of the two does this Act belong ?

6. Draw plans of any model villages you know.
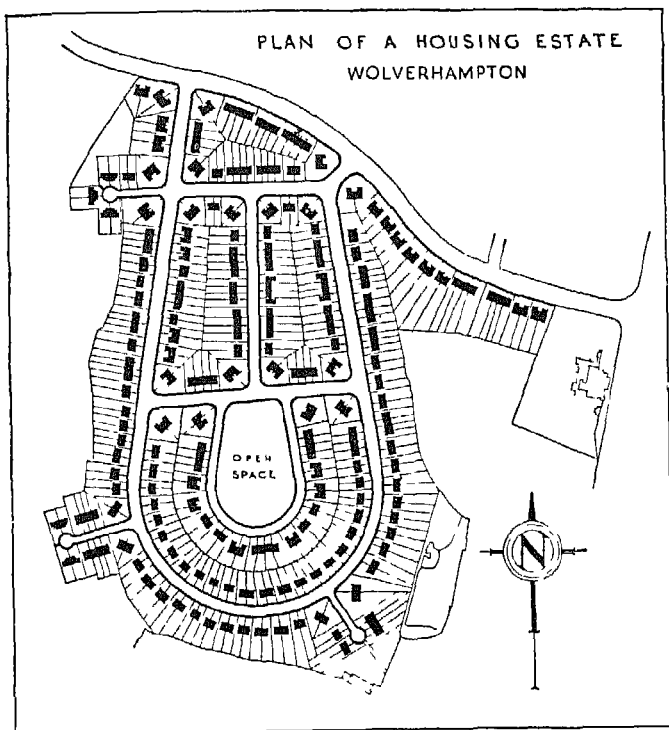
PLAN OF A HOUSING ESTATE
WOLVERHAMPTON

OPEN SPACE

N

MODERN TOWN-PLANNING.

Renaissance Architecture.—We have already learnt (page 122) how the movement called the Renaissance, which changed so many things, influenced English building. In the sixteenth century, the Gothic architecture of the Middle Ages began to go out of fashion, and *classical* architecture (that is, architecture modelled on that of ancient Greece and Rome) took its place. The first people to revive this ancient style of building was the Italians. One of the greatest of Italian architects was *Michael Angelo*, who was equally famous as a sculptor and painter. Another was *Palladio*, who played such an important part in introducing the new style, that it is sometimes called the *Palladian* style

English builders were slow in adopting this new *Palladian* or *Renaissance* style of building At first, they were content with having a few Renaissance decorations on buildings which were erected in the old Gothic manner Next, they began to build in a mixed style, half Gothic and half Renaissance Wollaton Hall, near Nottingham (page 207), is a good example of this. The highest part of the building (of which we can only see three windows and three turrets in the illustration) is like medieval Gothic architecture. The windows are much like the ordinary flowing decorated windows which were common in the fourteenth century (see pages 112-113), and which, in Nottinghamshire, often had flat tops instead of pointed ones But the
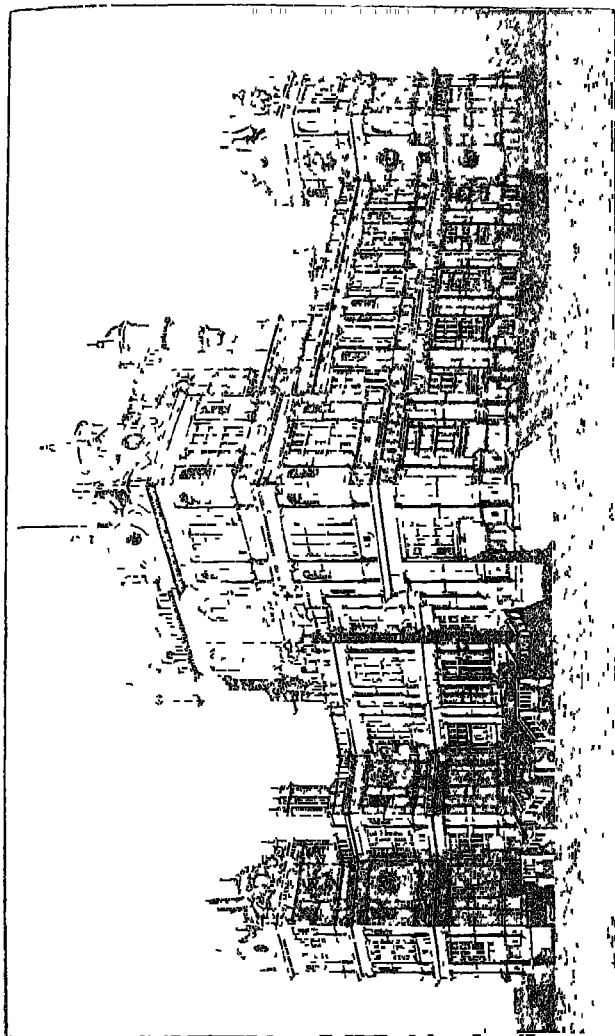
EARLY RENAISSANCE ARCHITECTURE (WOLLATON HALL, NOTTINGHAMSHIRE, BUILT ABOUT 1680).

(*From Gardner's "A Student's History of England"*)

lower part of the Hall surrounding the central tower, is
not Gothic at all   The windows are all quite rectangular,
and the niches (for statues) are not pointed, but round
Moreover, between every pair of windows there are two
half-pillars, or *pilasters*.   These pilasters look flat and
square, quite unlike Gothic pillars , and the heavy
cornices which they seem to support, the square bases
on which they rest, and the flat band across the middle
of each of them, are all patterns copied from ancient
classical architecture

Wollaton Hall was built in the reign of Queen
Elizabeth, and many similar houses were built at that
time   In fact, we shall notice that most of the big
buildings erected in modern times, until the nine-
teenth century, have been dwelling-houses   The people
of the Middle Ages made churches their chief buildings,
because, in those Catholic times, church services were
an important part of everyday life   In the sixteenth,
seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, the big buildings
were mostly halls or palaces, and in quite modern
times, the biggest buildings have been places of
business

Inigo Jones.—Early in the seventeenth century the
King of England, Charles I , decided to erect a magni-
ficent palace in Whitehall, at Westminster   The archi-
tect who designed it was *Inigo Jones*, the first great
English architect of modern times   But Charles I was
always short of money, and only a part of his palace
was completed   This was the Banqueting Hall, which
can still be seen in London, in Whitehall , and it is the
best example of Inigo Jones's work which remains for
us to see.

Sir Christopher Wren.—When Inigo Jones was an old
man, there was a young man who was becoming pro-
minent as an architect.   This was *Christopher Wren,* who
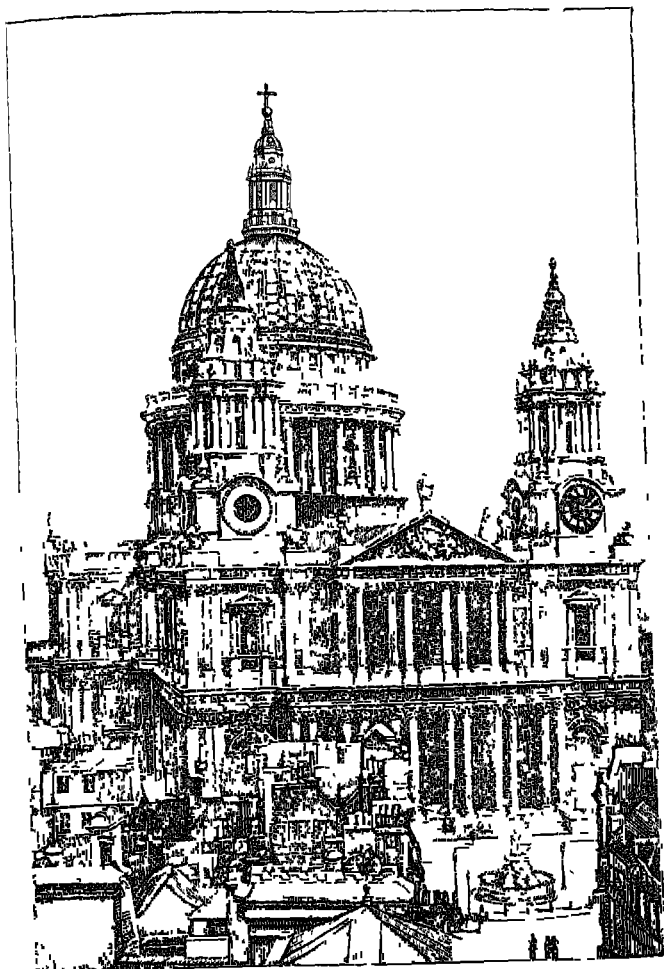
LATER RENAISSANCE ARCHITECTURE (ST PAUL'S CATHEDRAL,
BUILT ABOUT 1700)

(*From Gardiner's "A Student's History of England"*)

is now considered to be the greatest architect England
has ever had   Yet it was partly through good luck that
he became famous   He began life as a doctor, and then
became a well-known astronomer   While he was a
young man, the Civil War between the King and the
Parliament, and the troubles which followed (1640 to
1660), prevented much building being done at all   But
soon after the Stuarts were restored an accident gave
Wren the chance to make himself famous

This was the Great Fire of London (1666)   Nearly
all the City was destroyed, and Wren was the man
chosen to rebuild the chief churches   This task
occupied him for the rest of the century   He built
about forty churches in the City of London, and the
greatest of these was St Paul's Cathedral, which was
finished in 1705, and is one of the most famous buildings
in the world

The illustration on page 209 shows how fine it is.
It is the most important building in the Renaissance
style in England, and from it more can be learned
about that style than from any other   There are
the classical pillars, with *capitals* carved in a manner
copied from the Greeks. The arches everywhere are
round, and the flat windows are surmounted by little
triangular *pediments*   The big pediment over the
middle of the west end is filled with carved figures ;
and this, too, is copied from Greek architecture

But although Wren, like all Renaissance architects,
copied the details of his work from ancient classical
buildings, he had also many ideas of his own   The
dome of St Paul's, for example, is of a shape devised by
Wren himself, though domes were invented in the East,
and not by him   And it is the shape and proportions of
this dome which make it so fine and so famous. Besides
this, there are two rows, or storeys, of pillars, all round
St Paul's—and this, too, is unlike anything in the
architecture of Greece

The Successors of Wren.—Wren was so busy with his churches that he had less time than most architects for building mansions and palaces He did, however, build in the Renaissance style a new part of Hampton Court Palace for King William III , and after his death great houses were built apace. Perhaps the most famous of these eighteenth-century houses is the palace at Blenheim, which was built by the architect *Vanbrugh* to commemorate the most famous victory of its owner, the Duke of Marlborough.

At the same time, the Renaissance style was spreading, and most new churches and other buildings were built in this fashion But after Wren's death architects became less skilled, and Somerset House (London), by *Sir William Chambers*, is one of the few really great buildings of the later eighteenth century.

Revival of Gothic Architecture.—In the nineteenth century there was a change in fashion A few Renaissance buildings continued to be erected , but Gothic architecture came into fashion again—not only for churches, but for all kinds of buildings Nearly every town contains a number of churches built, during the nineteenth century, in Gothic, and this century has seen the building (by *Sir Gilbert Scott*) of Liverpool Cathedral, a really great building in the Gothic style. One of the most famous Gothic buildings of the nineteenth century is the Houses of Parliament, the architect of which was *Sir Charles Barry*

Steel Buildings.—In modern times, however, a return has been made to the Renaissance style, though some changes have been introduced One of the greatest of these changes is in the manner of erecting large buildings In the old days stone was laid slowly upon stone from the foundations to the roof. Nowadays, our large buildings are simply huge frameworks of steel,
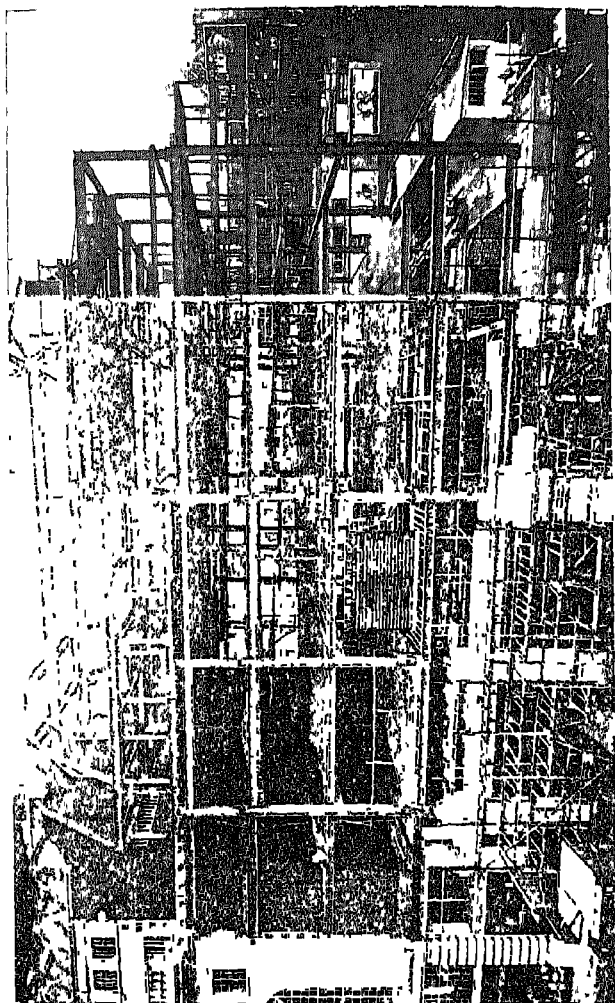
STEEL FRAME BUILDING
(By permission of Messrs Higgs & Hill Ltd.)

and the masonry is fitted into these frameworks (page 212) Yet this, like so many changes, is only an old fashion revived and brought up to date For these steel frameworks are just the same sort of thing as the oak frameworks of half-timbered buildings (pages 84 and 115), and the masonry is fitted into them in much the same way
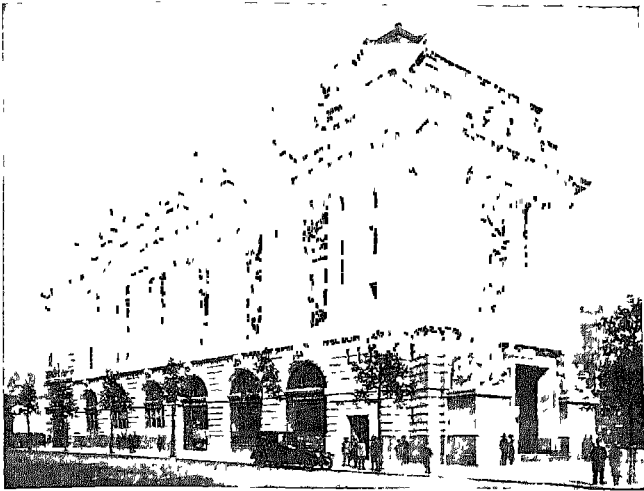
AUSTRALIA HOUSE, LONDON

(*By permission of the High Commissioner for Australia.*)

Perhaps, some day before long, architects will allow their steel frameworks to be seen on the outside of the finished buildings, and we shall have half-steel buildings which look something like the half-timbered buildings of the Middle Ages Already there are small signs of this If you look carefully at the picture of Australia House, you will see that the three storeys of windows between the pillars are separated, not

by stone, but by steel   This part of the steelwork
has been allowed to become prominent, and in some
buildings it is painted so as to be very prominent
indeed

Modern English Architecture. — Australia House
(which was finished in 1918) illustrates several other
features of quite modern English architecture   For
one thing, modern buildings are often so tall that the
pillars would seem too small if they were not several
storeys in height   As we look at Australia House, it
appears at first to be a building of two storeys (not
counting the roof)   But on closer inspection, we see
from the windows that there are eight floors in all
By thus using pillars several storeys in height, archi-
tects can provide enough floors for the many offices
needed, without causing the outside of the building
to seem merely a mass of windows   The steeply-
sloping roof, too, is found in many modern buildings
In former times, architects preferred to hide the roofs
of their buildings   Nowadays the roof (which, after all,
is a very important part of every building) is con-
structed so as to add to the beauty of the whole.

In quite recent times architecture has become more
" modern " still   Buildings nowadays usually show by
their appearance what they are meant for , and they
are usually very plain, because the architects prefer
making them beautiful by their shape and proportions
rather than by decorations.   A good example of recent
building is Broadcasting House, which is illustrated on
page 221.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXVII

1. Find out as much as you can about each of the following, and
then write short notes about them —Inigo Jones ,   Sir
Christopher Wren , Sir Gilbert Scott , Sir Charles Barry

2. Questions :—

    (a) What changes took place in building in the sixteenth century, and why ?

    (b) What are the chief differences between Gothic and Renaissance architecture ?

    (c) What sorts of buildings were chiefly erected (i) in the Middle Ages, (ii) in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, (iii) in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries ? What are the reasons for these changes ?

    (d) What are the chief characteristics of (i) nineteenth-century architecture, (ii) twentieth-century architecture ?

    (e) What do you know about the following ?—Michael Angelo, Palladio, Vanbrugh, Chambers, pilaster ; cornice, pediment

3 Make pictures or models of the following —

    (a) St Paul's Cathedral (the whole, or any part of it).

    (b) The Houses of Parliament

    (c) Australia House

    (d) A steel framework ready for masonry.

CHAPTER XXVIII

A CENTURY OF PROGRESS

Travel.—If we consider the difference between England to-day and England a hundred years ago, probably the first thing to strike us is the ease with which people can travel In 1850 it was still usual for most people not to travel at all , nowadays, there are very few of us who have not been to other parts of the country At the beginning of the nineteenth century, travel was so difficult and dangerous that most people were only too glad to do without it. To-day it is too easy and pleasant to do without A journey which would have taken days in 1800 can be done now in half a day by train, and in two or three hours by aeroplane Since 1919 there have been regular daily aeroplane services between London, Paris, and other great cities In 1850 the London-Paris journey took two days or more a modern aeroplane does it in half an hour India, which used to be months away from Europe, can now be reached in a few days

Even for short distances travel is vastly improved Trams and buses and underground railways make it easier to get about in towns and cities , and there are now very few country villages from which a town cannot easily be reached by train or bus, whereas a hundred years ago many village people never saw a town in their lives

The Post and Telegraphs —Besides this, there are all the improvements which enable us to communicate with

people whom we cannot visit Early in the nineteenth century the only way to do this was by letters, which took days, or weeks, to reach distant parts of the country and which were very expensive to send long distances In 1840 *Sir Rowland Hill* introduced the *Penny Post* From then until 1917 the Post Office would take letters anywhere in the British Isles (and before long, anywhere in the British Empire) for a penny. Unfortunately war made it necessary to raise the price to three-halfpence in 1917, and to twopence-halfpenny in 1940

The letter post has gained as much as anything else by the coming of the aeroplane Air Mail has reduced from weeks to days, or even hours, the time it takes letters to reach many places abroad

Electrical inventions have made the sending of messages quicker still The *Morse* electric *telegraph* was invented in 1836 From that time telegraph wires began to spread all over Europe, and in 1865 the first cable was laid across the Atlantic to America Ten years later, *Graham Bell* invented the *telephone* Towards the end of the century, wireless telegraphy was made possible by the work of *Marconi*, and within the last few years wireless telephony has become so common that there are millions of wireless receiving sets in this country alone. In 1926 *beam wireless* stations were established, from which messages can be sent without being overheard by people for whom they are not intended, and in 1927 a regular wireless telephone service was opened across the Atlantic between London and New York

Health and Disease.—All these improvements are for people's convenience But perhaps the greatest of all inventions are those which improve people's health *Hospitals* were not uncommon, even in the Middle Ages, but during the nineteenth century every

town in England set up its own hospital, and yet all these hospitals are kept going by the private contributions of generous people   As we all know, hospitals exist to cure illness and injuries, but they exist also to find out fresh facts about disease   Hospital doctors are constantly learning more about their work, through the experience they gain in treating so many hospital patients

Consequently, the treatment of disease by doctors is growing more and more skilful, and disease itself is becoming less common   *Vaccination* (which was discovered by *Jenner* in 1798) has almost stamped out smallpox in this country.   *Disinfectants*, which kill the germs that cause disease, are used far more freely than ever before ,   and *antiseptics*, which prevent those germs from becoming full-grown, do more good still *Lord Lister* first showed how these antiseptics could be used in surgical operations, and so operations are now far less dangerous than they used to be   Moreover, *anæsthetics* (like *chloroform*, which was first used by *Dr J Y Simpson* in 1847) have made it easy to perform operations which were impossible before   The result of all this development in medicine and surgery is that the average life of an Englishman lasts much longer than it did a century ago   In quite recent times a very wonderful antiseptic, *Penicillin*, has been discovered ,   and successful treatments have been found for many diseases which used to be thought incurable

Education.—It is not only the body which has a better chance than in 1850   We have also more opportunity of developing our minds   *Education* has improved enormously   A century ago there were few schools, and nearly all of them were kept for the private profit of the owners   Now, as we know, everybody must go to school, and most of us go there for nothing, at any rate for the first few years   Until the year 1870,

there were not nearly enough schools In that year
an Act of Parliament made it compulsory for all towns
and country districts to provide as many schools as
were needed, and for that reason these schools became
known, after a time, as *Council Schools*

At first people could please themselves whether or
not they sent their children to school But in 1880
elementary education was made compulsory   and
because many parents could not pay fees, in 1891 the
schools had to be made free   Since that time
elementary education has been given to every child
in the country   After 1918 at least a quarter of the
places in the *secondary schools* were given to the best
boys and girls from the elementary schools, without
any fee   Then, in 1944, an Act was passed to provide
free secondary education for every boy and girl in the
land   At the same time, more and more *scholarships*
have been provided for those who cannot go to a
university without them , and whereas in 1800 England
had only two universities, she now has twelve, apart
from eight others in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, and
Technical Colleges all over the country   Even for
those who go straight from school into business there
are evening classes where they can continue their
education while they are earning their living

Newspapers.—More education has meant more books,
magazines, and newspapers   *Newspapers,* especially,
had a hard struggle at first   Governments did not
like too much news to be published, and newspapers
were restricted by a tax of fourpence a copy   In 1836
this duty was reduced to one penny, and in 1855 it was
repealed altogether.   From that time newspapers
became more numerous and cheaper, so that everybody
can now afford to buy them

Books, Libraries, and Art Galleries.—Another tax
which hindered reading was the *Paper Duty*, which made

all books and magazines (as well as newspapers) expensive   This tax was repealed in 1861, and since then publishers have competed to produce good books cheap Some of the greatest books in the world can now be bought for a shilling or less   At the same time, *libraries* have spread very widely   Many ordinary shops have libraries from which books can be borrowed for a few pence a week   And, above all, almost every town and many of the villages in England have *Free Public Libraries* of their own from which the people can borrow the very best books for nothing

The removal of the paper duty made other things cheaper as well as books   Until the nineteenth century only rich people could have pictures on their walls the poor had to be content with such things as knitted samplers   Nowadays, good pictures are so cheap that there is no excuse for having bad ones   And just as we can get the best books for nothing from the Public Libraries, so we can see the best pictures for nothing at the public *Art Galleries*, where we can train ourselves to know what is good and what is bad in art

Amusements and Leisure —Finally, we must not forget our amusements   A hundred years ago many towns had not even a theatre, and the only way to find amusement was to play games at home or outside Even at the beginning of the twentieth century there was not a single *Picture Theatre* in the world, for it was only in 1890 that the cinematograph was invented by *Edison*.   To-day there are more than 25,000 picture theatres in English-speaking countries alone   *Broadcasting*, as we know, is still more recent   The *B B C* was not founded until 1922, and yet there are now in this country millions of receiving sets and many large broadcasting stations   Before the World War of 1939-45, too, great strides had been made with *television*   and television broadcasting began again when the war was over.
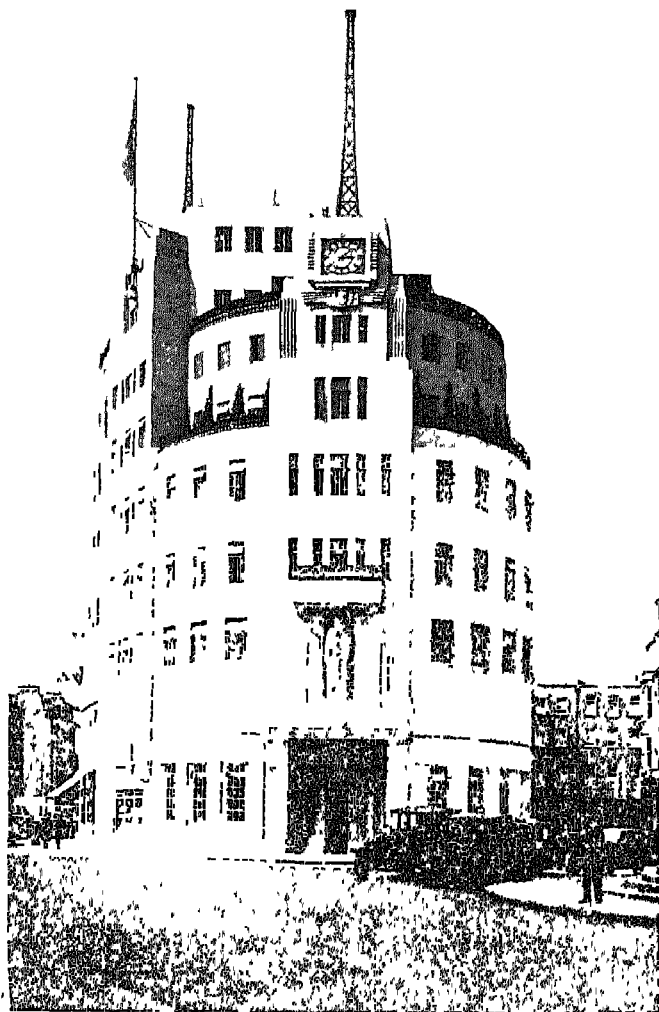
BROADCASTING HOUSE.
Headquarters of the B.B.C.

Both the cinema and the wireless can do good by teaching as well as amusing us. This is not so true of some other amusements, such as football and cricket matches and entertainment fairs, all of which we enjoy for themselves, and all of which, in their present form, were introduced in the nineteenth century

Thus perhaps the greatest difference of all between our age and former times, is that it is easy to fill our leisure hours Until the nineteenth century working people had very little spare time, and when they had any they often used it for doing mischief To-day, the law ensures that every man has some time for himself, and the pleasant and profitable ways of spending that time are more numerous than they have ever been before

Effects of the World Wars.—But the changes of the last century have brought great evils as well as great benefits The greatest of these evils is world war A hundred years ago there had never been a world war Since 1900 there have been two, and they have made vast differences to the way we live While the wars are on, we break off our work and play and sleep to spend time in air-raid shelters Rationing cuts short our food and clothing Pleasure journeys to seaside and country disappear—and so do our usual football and cricket and other sports Young men and women spend years in the Services, helping on a mighty work of destruction, instead of in their ordinary work, helping to make and do things which are really useful

Farming in the Twentieth Century.—Even war, however, can cause good as well as evil The World War of 1939-45 brought cheap hot meals in British Restaurants and schools, and free milk for growing children, and there were more privately owned restaurants than ever before Yet we could still buy

in the shops quite enough bread and meat and other foods to live on, even if it was less than we had been used to. Where did it all come from ? Very much of it still had to be imported from abroad Ever since the Industrial Revolution Britain has been too busy producing coal and machinery and other things connected with industry to grow enough corn for its people   And so, for the last hundred and fifty years, most of our corn and flour (sometimes as much as 85 per cent) has come from other countries   But the wars prevented great amounts of shipping from reaching this country safely, and therefore the British farmers had to grow much more corn for our bread   Land which had not been tilled for many years was ploughed again   Woods were cut down to provide us with timber   And many people who had never thought of producing food for themselves now cultivated a vegetable garden, or kept poultry or bees

Changes on the Farm.—Still, most of the extra food came from the farms   This result was reached in two ways   by using the land differently, and by introducing more farm machinery   Before the wars more and more farmers had found that they could not produce corn nearly as cheap as the corn imported from abroad, and so more and more of them took to cattle-farming and dairy-farming instead   Quite a number of British farmers had not a single field of corn on their land   The wars altered this   As corn and flour and bread became scarce, British farmers found that it paid them to grow corn again, and cornfields began to appear where there had been nothing but grass for generations.

Besides this, many farmers began to use much more machinery on their farms   Tractors began to take the place of horses , ploughs were drawn across the fields two or four or six at a time , potatoes were dug

up and sorted by machinery instead of by hand , cream
was separated from the milk by mechanical separators—
and even the milking was done by machinery on the
bigger farms Many British farmers introduced from
America the *Combine Harvester*—a machine which cuts
and threshes the new corn all at once, and so does away
with the need to spend time in making corn-stacks.
More chemical manures were used on the farms—and
there were more chemists interested in farming, and
more young farmers being trained in colleges to keep
really up to date with their farming methods.
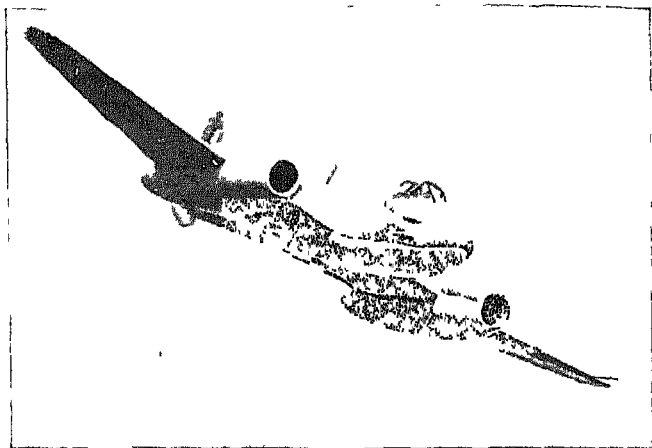
Photo: Barratt's Photo Press, Ltd

METEOR JET PLANT

Speed.—War brought other great changes which
may make vast differences to the lives of people in
the future. Aeroplanes of the R A F. became faster
and faster—especially after the introduction of *jet
propulsion* During the war of 1939-45 the speed of
aeroplanes was at least doubled—to over 600 miles

an hour   Yet the invention of *radiolocation* made flying much safer than ever before   After the wars the new inventions were used in civil flying as well, so that people who can afford to travel by plane find their journeys far quicker than they were a few years ago

Jet propulsion is perhaps the most important discovery made for many thousands of years. Ever since prehistoric times, man's best way of moving things has been by the use of wheels, and many think that the wheel and fire are the two most important discoveries man has ever made   Jet propulsion promises to change all this—how much, we shall not be able to tell for a long time yet.

Atomic Energy.—Another (and even greater) power was at last discovered at the very end of the 1939-45 war   Late in the nineteenth century scientists realised that the atoms of which all things consist contain an enormous force, and for many years they tried to release this force and harness it to useful purposes   In 1945 they succeeded   The first important result was the atomic bomb   But atomic energy can be used for better purposes than destroying cities, and it is far stronger than steam or electricity or any other power which man has used till now

Paying for War.—To pay for the two great wars the British people have had to be taxed far more severely than ever before   The richer you are, the more in proportion you have to pay—and the very rich have to pay so much that many of them are very rich no longer   In fact, the wars have quite altered the lives of the different classes in Britain   Not only are there now hardly any very rich, there are no longer any so poor that they do not know where the next meal is coming from, as there are still in most countries

8

Nationalisation.—During the wars far more things had to come under the control of the Government— not only food and clothes rationing but the distribution of almost everything from coal and steel to paper and books   At the end of the war in 1945 the British people elected a Labour Government, which believed in *Nationalisation*—that is, having all the chief industries not only controlled but owned by the Government, as the Post Office has always been   This Government at once set about nationalising the railways, the mines, electricity, transport, and other important industries, so that in future the profits should go not to private owners but to the country as a whole

Traffic on the Roads.—Other things besides industry are being more and more organised   Even before the world wars many things were getting out of control because they were not properly planned   One of these was road traffic   Cars and lorries and buses had become far too numerous for the old English roads, and motor transport brought injury and death, as well as con- venience, to civilised countries   There was incon- venience too   Slow-moving and fast-moving vehicles are always getting into one another's way and causing waste of time   So the road system of the country is to be replanned   Already arterial roads and by-passes, traffic-lanes, and new kinds of road junctions are making a big difference—not to mention such things as pedestrian crossings and traffic lights to deal with the congested streets of our towns

Town and Country Planning.—In fact, the towns themselves need complete replanning. Most of them grew up unplanned during the Industrial Revolution, and they are quite inconvenient   Houses and factories and shops are mixed together almost anyhow   Many a residential district has been spoilt by factories built

in the neighbourhood   Many a shopping quarter has grown up too far from the houses where the customers live   Houses have been allowed to be crowded too close together, with too few parks and open spaces and playing-fields to keep the people healthy

Schemes have been prepared to alter all this   In future, towns and cities will not be allowed to become (like London and other great cities) so big that their people have to spend too much time in getting to and from their work, or getting into the country for fresh air   Towns are to be surrounded by *Green Belts*, where there will be no buildings except those of the farms , and the towns and cities themselves are to be planned in districts so that works and shops and houses do not interfere with one another

Social Security.—There are further plans to improve the lives of everybody—plans for better insurance against unemployment and sickness and old age   Till now, even the best national insurance schemes have left many people afraid of the time when they can earn no more   New plans for *Social Security* (as it is called) will try to guarantee so much trade that wages will be good and unemployment almost unknown, and that those who are handicapped by age or sickness or injury will be looked after properly.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XXVIII

1 Make a time chart to illustrate the improvements mentioned in this chapter, giving a separate column to each different kind of progress

2 Questions :—
   (a) Write an account of the progress which has been made since 1800 in the following —(i) Travel (see also Chapter XIX) , (ii) other means of communication , (iii) Public Health (see also Chapter XXIV) , (iv) Education , (v) Reading , (vi) Amusements ; (vii) Farming , (viii) Town and Country Planning , (ix) Social Security

8A

    (*b*) What is meant by the saying that every year the world gets smaller ? In what ways is this saying true ?

    (*c*) What do you know of the history of newspapers in the nineteenth century ?

    (*d*) What do you know about the following ?—Sir Rowland Hill, Morse ; Graham Bell, Edison, Marconi, Jenner, Lister, J Y. Simpson, Council Schools ; Newspaper Duty, Paper Duty, Penicillin, Television, Combine Harvester, Radiolocation, Atomic Energy, Nationalisation, Green Belts, Social Security

3 **Source Exercise** —

    " I was then sent to a boys' school, to learn to ' write and cypher,' thought at that time to be all the education required for poor people It was the only school in the town at that time, and I had two masters while there The first master was a severe one, and the second was somewhat worse Custises [flat sticks] on the palm of the hand, and very severe canings, were punishments for not recollecting our tasks, and on one occasion I saw him hang up a boy by the two thumbs, with his toes just touching the ground, for playing truant Here, too, I caught the smallpox from seeing a little girl brought into the school in her grandmother's arms But bad as I had it, I was not marked with it as numbers of my schoolfellows were, for so terrible were its ravages at that period that I can vividly remember the number of seamed and scarred faces among them Vaccination at that time had not been introduced into our town, though inoculation for the smallpox was occasionally resorted to, but it was looked upon as sinful, and a doubting of Providence, although about that period one in every fourteen persons born died of its ravages " (*The Life and Struggles of William Lovett*, pp 4-5)

    (*a*) When do you suppose this was written, and to what time does it refer ?

    (*b*) What differences are there between what was taught at this school and what you are taught at school now ?

    (*c*) Write an account of a day at this school as though you were one of the pupils

    (*d*) What do you know about vaccination ?

    (*e*) What reason (according to this passage) did people give for not being vaccinated ? What other reasons did they probably give ?

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